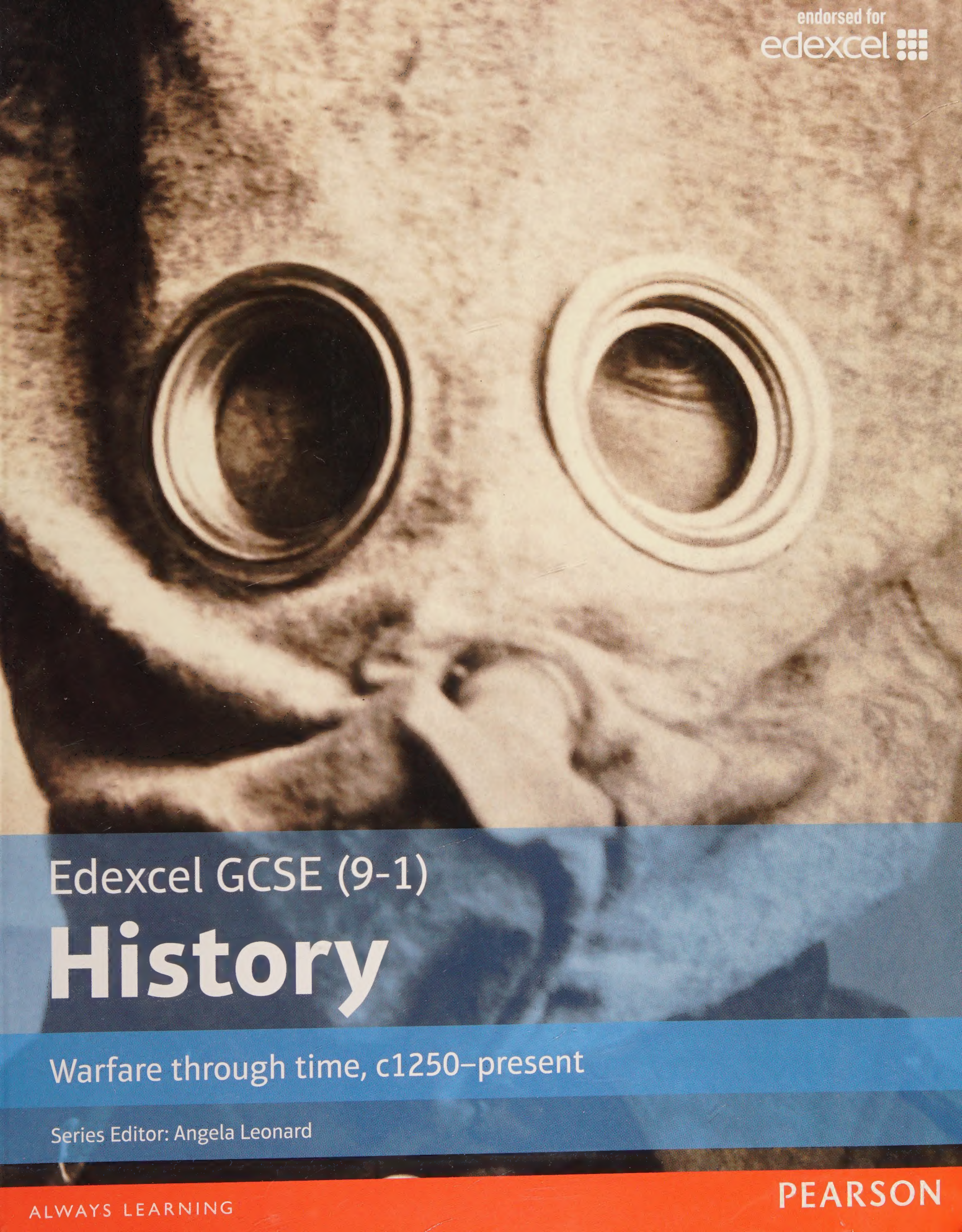

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History

Warfare through time, c1250–present

Series Editor: Angela Leonard

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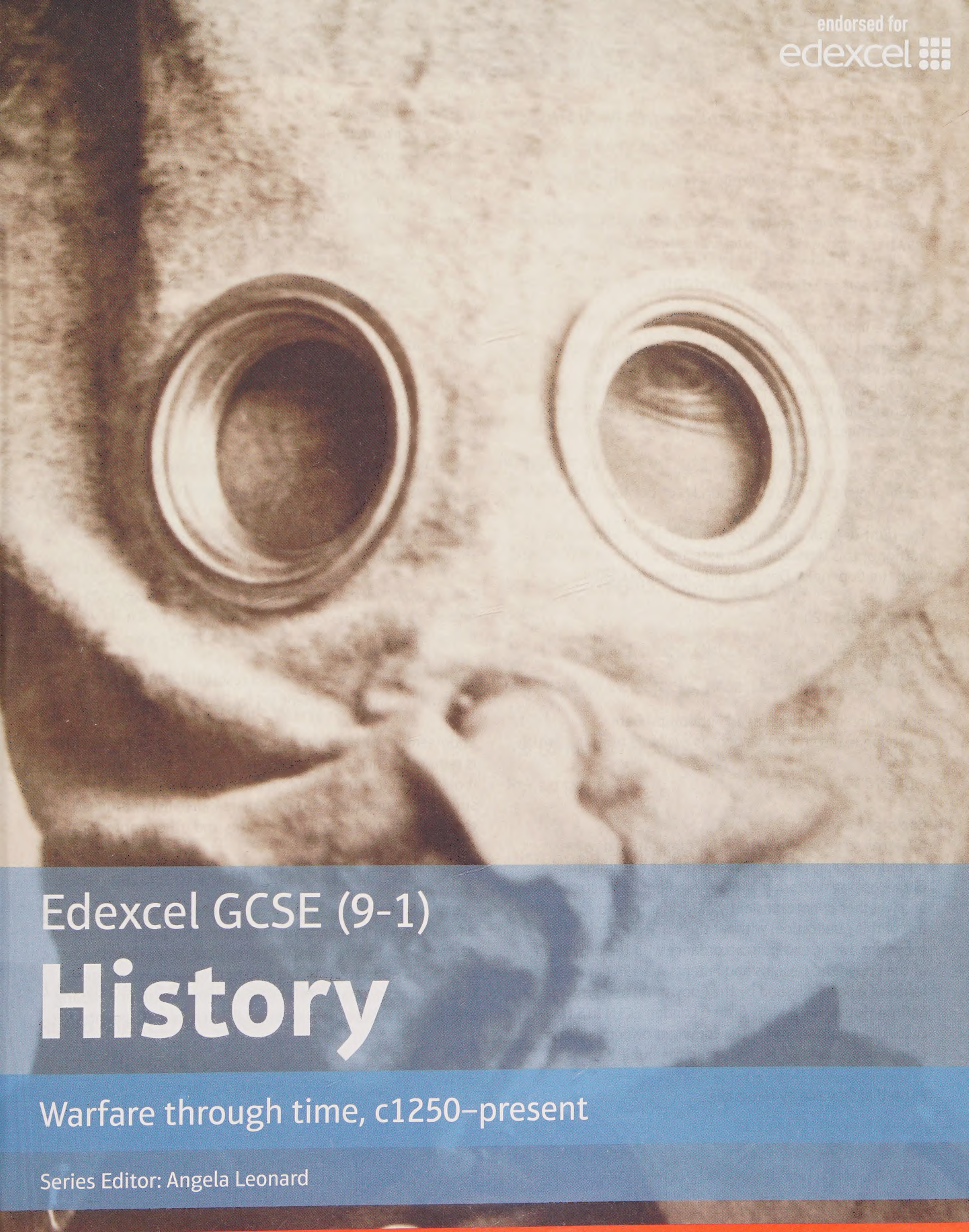

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How to use this book

What's covered?

This book covers the Thematic study on Warfare through time and the Historical Environment, c1250 to present. These units make up 30% of your GCSE course, and will be examined in Paper 1.

Thematic studies cover a long period of time, and focus on the nature and causes of change in that period. The Historical Environment focuses on a specific place linked to the Thematic study, and examines its relationship with historical developments and events. This book also explains the different types of exam questions you will need to answer, and includes advice and example answers to help you improve.

Features

As well as a clear, detailed explanation of the key knowledge you will need, you will also find a number of features in the book:

Key terms

Where you see a word followed by an asterisk, like this: Strategy*, you will be able to find a Key Terms box on that page that explains what the word means.

Key term

Strategy*

The overall plan used to achieve your objectives.

Activities

Every few pages, you'll find a box containing some activities designed to help check and embed knowledge and get you to really think about what you've studied. The activities start simple, but might get more challenging as you work through them.

Summaries and Checkpoints

At the end of each chunk of learning, the main points are summarised in a series of bullet points – great for embedding the core knowledge, and handy for revision.

Checkpoints help you to check and reflect on your learning. The Strengthen section helps you to consolidate knowledge and understanding, and check that you've grasped the basic ideas and skills. The Challenge questions push you to go beyond just understanding the information, and into evaluation and analysis of what you've studied.

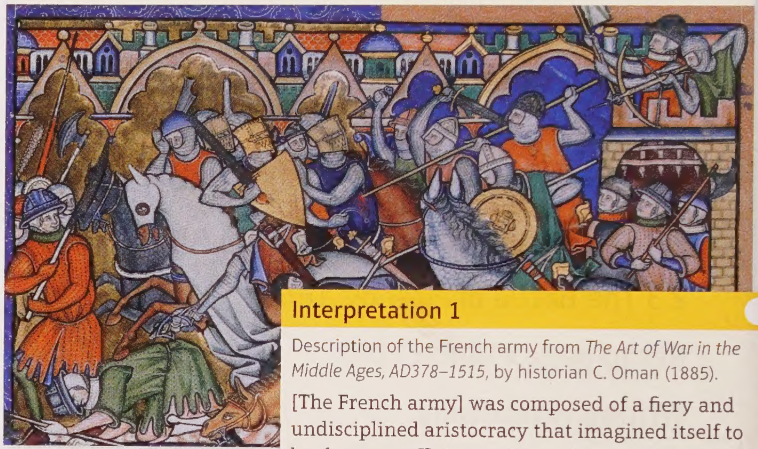
Sources and Interpretations

Although source work and interpretations do not appear in the Thematic paper, you'll still find interesting contemporary material throughout the book, showing what people from the period said, thought or created, helping you to build your understanding of people in the past.

The book also includes extracts from the work of historians, showing how experts have interpreted the events you've been studying.

Source A

An illustration from a Bible produced in about 1250. Although it is supposed to show a scene from the Bible, the artist used troops, weapons and a style of combat from his own time, so it is a useful source for historians of the period.



Interpretation 1

Description of the French army from *The Art of War in the Middle Ages, AD378–1515*, by historian C. Oman (1885).

[The French army] was composed of a fiery and undisciplined aristocracy that imagined itself to be the most efficient military force in the world, but was in reality little removed from an armed mob.

Extend your knowledge

These features contain useful additional information that adds depth to your knowledge, and to your answers. The information is closely related to the key issues in the unit, and questions are sometimes included, helping you to link the new details to the main content.

Extend your knowledge

Dupplin Moor (1332)

At the Battle of Dupplin Moor, the Scots attacked the English army head-on. The dismounted English men-at-arms in the centre held firm, whilst longbow archers advanced on the flanks and poured arrows into the Scots. Unable to retreat because of the bodies of the men killed by arrows, the Scots were trapped in a hail of arrows and almost wiped out.

Exam-style questions and tips

The book also includes extra exam-style questions you can use to practise. These appear in the chapters and are accompanied by a tip to help you get started on an answer.

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain **one** way in which recruitment was different by c1500 than it had been in c1250. **4 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests knowledge and understanding of difference, features and characteristics. In your answer, you only need to give one way in which recruitment was different by 1500 than it had been in 1250; but to get all of the marks you must give evidence or examples to support what you are saying.

Recap pages

At the end of each chapter, you'll find a page designed to help you to consolidate and reflect on the chapter as a whole. Each recap page includes a recall quiz, ideal for quickly checking your knowledge or for revision. Recap pages also include activities designed to help you summarise and analyse what you've learned, and also reflect on how each chapter links to other parts of the unit.

THINKING HISTORICALLY

These activities are designed to help you develop a better understanding of how history is constructed, and are focused on the key areas of Evidence, Interpretations, Cause & Consequence and Change & Continuity. In the Thematic Study, you will come across activities on both Cause and Change, and in the Historical Environment on Evidence, as these are the key foci for these units.

The Thinking Historically approach has been developed in conjunction with Dr Arthur Chapman and the Institute of Education, UCL. It is based on research into the misconceptions that can hold students back in history.

THINKING HISTORICALLY **Change and continuity (2a-b)** conceptual map reference

The Thinking Historically conceptual map can be found at: www.pearsonschools.co.uk/thinkinghistoricallygcse

WRITING HISTORICALLY

At the end of most chapters is a spread dedicated to helping you improve your writing skills. These include simple techniques you can use in your writing to make your answers clearer, more precise and better focused on the question you're answering.

The Writing Historically approach is based on the *Grammar for Writing* pedagogy developed by a team at the University of Exeter and popular in many English departments. Each spread uses examples from the preceding chapter, so it's relevant to what you've just been studying.

Preparing for your exams

At the back of the book, you'll find a special section dedicated to explaining and exemplifying the new Edexcel GCSE History exams. Advice on the demands of this paper, written by Angela Leonard, helps you prepare for and approach the exam with confidence. Each question type is explained through annotated sample answers at two levels, showing clearly how answers can be improved.

Pearson Progression Scale: This icon indicates the Step that a sample answer has been graded at on the Pearson Progression Scale. 8th

This book is also available as an online ActiveBook, which can be licensed for your whole institution.

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About change

This course is about two things: it is about the history of war, and it is about **change**. You are going to look at a long period of time – over 750 years. War is the theme you will follow through these years. Concentrating on just one part of British life means you can also focus on how and why things change (and sometimes how and why they don't.)

This introduction is to help you understand the language and concepts historians use when they discuss change.

- **Change** – this is when things become different than they were before.
- **Continuity** – this is the opposite of change, when things stay the same, sometimes for a very long time.
- Change isn't always the same as **progress** – which is when things get better.
- The **rate of change** – change doesn't always happen at the same pace – sometimes things change very quickly, but sometimes they change slowly. Historians are interested in why this is.
- A **trend** is when there are a number of similar and related changes, continuing in the same direction, over a period of time – for example, the fact that there were 35 million people with smartphones in the UK in 2014 is part of the trend in the growing use of mobile phones.
- A **turning point** is when a significant change happens – something that is different from what has happened before and which will affect the future. For example, it was a turning point when Michael Harrison made the first ever mobile phone call in Britain on 1 January 1985.
- Historians are very interested in the **factors** that affect change. Some of them can be quite obvious, but others are more surprising. For example:
  - developments in science and technology, particularly around miniaturisation, have affected the development of the mobile phone
  - people's attitudes have also affected the development of the mobile phone. For example, text messaging (SMS) was not originally designed to be used – it was built in to help scientists test the first networks and phones. But users found out about it, liked it, and it has now become part of our world
  - less surprisingly, government has affected the development of mobile phones – with regulations about networks, laws about using them, and planning control of phone masts.

Look out for plenty more factors that affect change throughout the course.

Activities ?

1 Write your own definitions for each of the words in bold above, and explain your own example of each one.

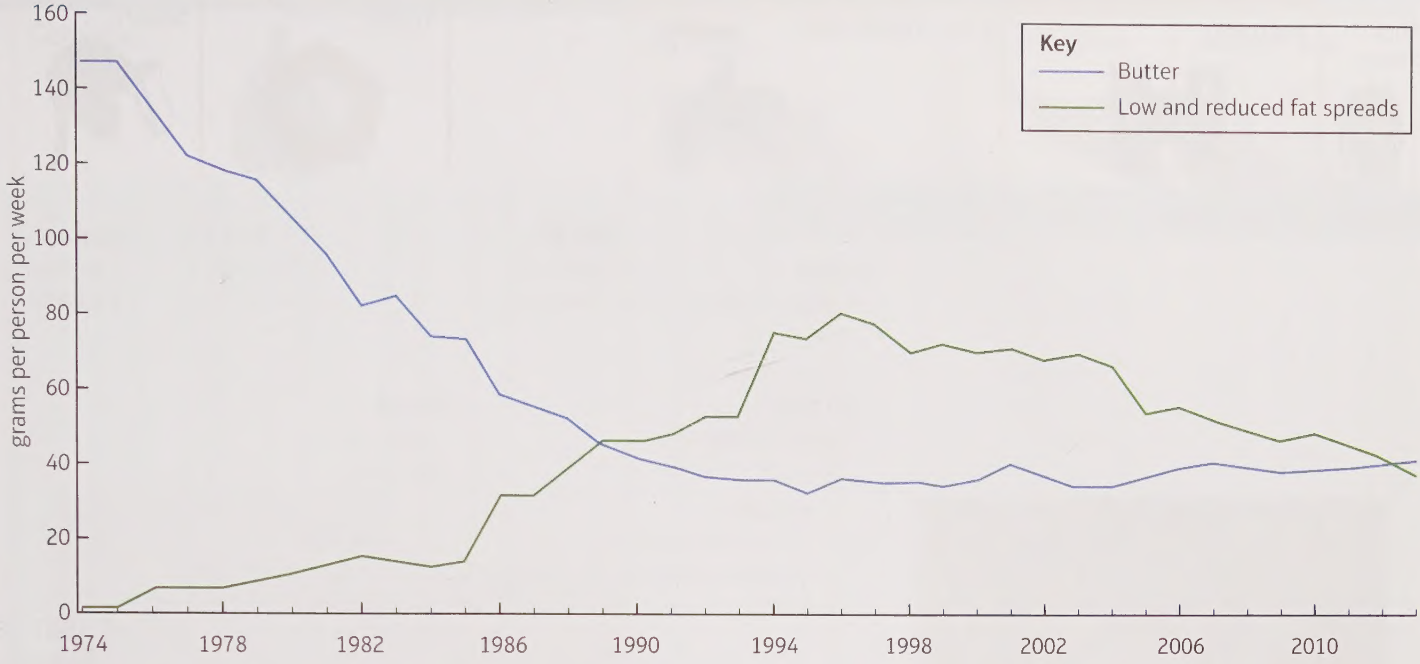
2 Graphs can be a useful way to show change. Study the graph opposite.

- **a** Where would you put these two factors affecting change on the graph? i) Worries about the health effects of butter are common. ii) Government campaigns to get people to reduce the fat in their diet.
- **b** At the same time, bread sales fell by about 50%. Is this a factor affecting spread sales?

3 Study the table summarising Katy and Mel's journeys to school.

- **a** Draw a line graph, with two lines, showing Katy and Mel's independence in their journeys. On the x-axis have the school years from 1 to 11. On the y-axis, plot their independence. For each of them, score their two journeys (to and from school) and add the scores together. Going with a parent: scores 1 mark; using public transport: 2 marks; going by themselves: 3 marks. (Use half marks when they sometimes do one thing, and sometimes another: e.g. in Year 8 Katy scores 1½ for her journey to school, because she sometimes goes by car and sometimes goes by bus.)
- **b** Explain which period of time on the graph is the best example of continuity.
- **c** Does the rate of change vary? Explain your answer.
- **d** Is there a trend? If so, explain what it is.
- **e** Is there a turning point for either of them? If so, explain what it is.
- **f** Explain what factors you think affected the changes in their journeys to and from school.

4 Make a timeline or a graph to show change in your life over time. Show any trends or turning points, and places where the rate of change increases. Explain what factors have influenced these changes.



UK purchases of butter and spreads, 1974–2013

Journeys to and from school

School year	Katy	Mel
Years 1–6	Mel and Katy are twins; they went to a primary school that was about 10 minutes walk from home. Their Dad walked with them to school in the morning, and their Mum met them and walked home with them at the end of the day.	
Year 7	They now moved to a secondary school which was about three miles away. Their Mum took them to school in the car in the morning. They went to an after school club, and then their Dad picked them up in the car at about 5 o'clock.	
Year 8	Going to school, usually got a lift from her Mum in the car, but sometimes caught the bus with Mel and her friends. Stayed at the after school club until Dad picked them up in the car.	Caught the bus to school with her friends. Stayed at the after school club until Dad picked them up in the car.
Year 9	Cycled to school with her mates Aarav and Claire. Often stayed to do sport after school, and then cycled home.	Caught the bus to school with her friends. Usually stayed at the after school club until her Dad picked her up in the car. In the summer sometimes went home on the bus with her friends.
Year 10	Cycled to school with her mates. Often stayed to do sport after school, and then cycled home. In the summer developed a crush on one of Mel's friends, Callum, and started going in on the bus with Mel and her friends.	Caught the bus to school with her friends. Went home on the bus with her friends.
Year 11	Started going out with Callum. Usually met him on the bus in the mornings, and walked home with him after school.	Caught the bus to school with her friends. Went home on the bus with her friends.

Timeline: Warfare

Anglo-Saxon | Norman | Late Middle Ages | Tudor | Stuart

Nature of warfare

1297 Battle of Stirling Bridge

1298 Battle of Falkirk

1327 Gunpowder weapons appear in English army

1415 Battle of Agincourt

1485 Battle of Bosworth

1522 Pikemen and musketeers on the rise

1645 Battle of Naseby

1647 Bayonet invented

1337-1453 Hundred Years' War

1642-1651 English Civil Wars

1000 | 1100 | 1200 | 1300 | 1400 | 1500 | 1600

Experience of war

1455-1485 Wars of the Roses

1559 Tudor Militia Act

1573 Trained Bands set up

1285 The Statute of Winchester

1607 First printed Drill Book

1337 Much greater use of mercenaries follows

1337 Taxation rises rapidly from here to pay for warfare

1645 New Model Army set up

1250-1350 Gradual decline of feudal armies

Georgian

Victorian

Edwardian

World Wars

Modern Era

1740
Light artillery introduced

1815
Battle of Waterloo

1854
Battle of Balaclava

1850–1918
Improved artillery, rifles and machine guns

1914
British Flying Corps created

1916
Battle of the Somme

1945
First atomic bombs dropped

1853–1856
Crimean War

2003–2011
Iraq War

1700 1800 1900 2000

1792–1803, 1804–1815
Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars

1914–1918
First World War

1939–1945
Second World War

1757
Militia Act

1800
Sandhurst Royal Military College opened

1870
Cardwell's army reforms

1908
Haldane's army reforms

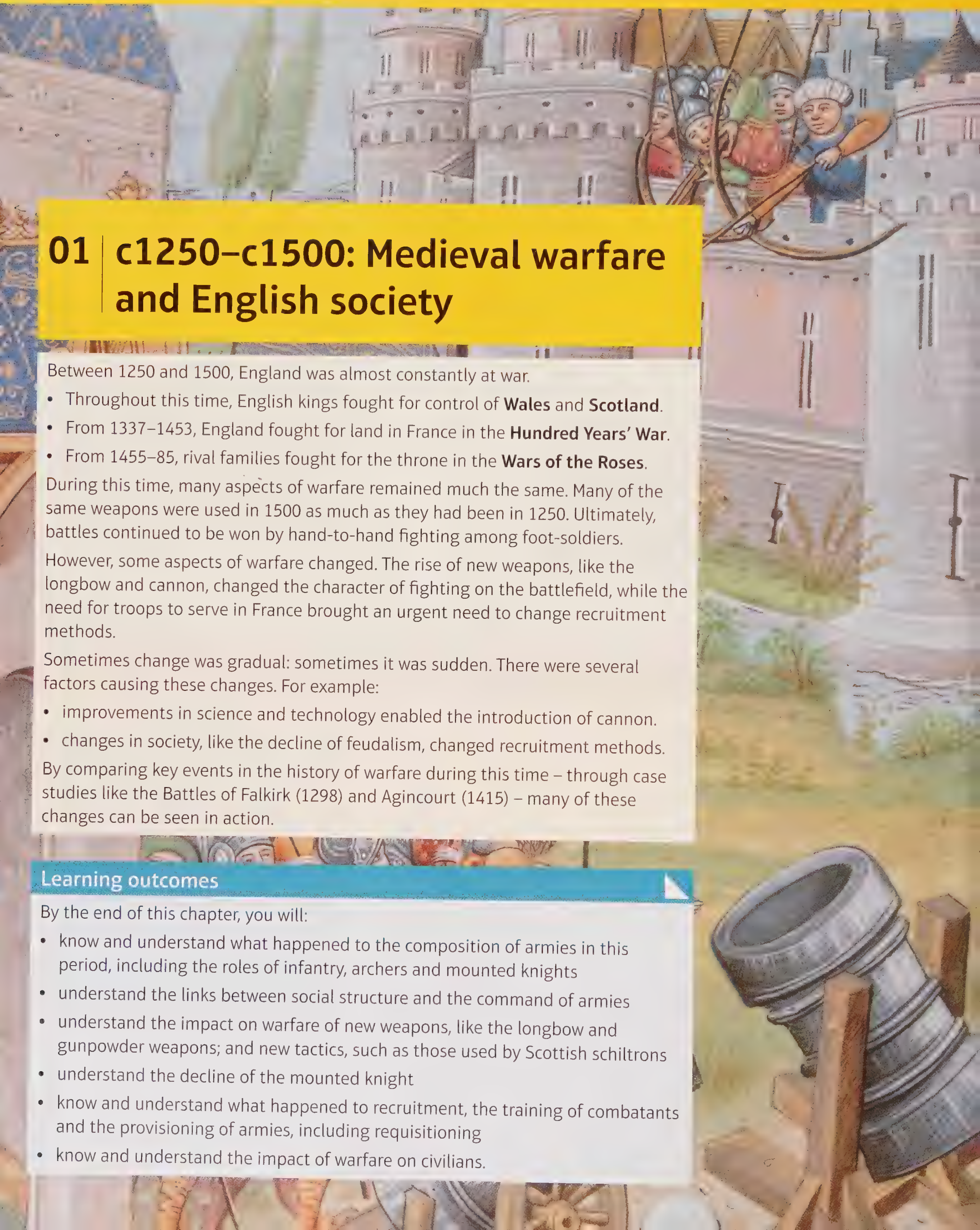
1916 and **1939**
Conscription introduced

1939
Evacuation of London

1940–41
First London Blitz

1944–45
V1 and V2 attacks on London

2010
Army 2020 reform



01 | c1250–c1500: Medieval warfare and English society

Between 1250 and 1500, England was almost constantly at war.

- Throughout this time, English kings fought for control of **Wales** and **Scotland**.
- From 1337–1453, England fought for land in France in the **Hundred Years' War**.
- From 1455–85, rival families fought for the throne in the **Wars of the Roses**.

During this time, many aspects of warfare remained much the same. Many of the same weapons were used in 1500 as much as they had been in 1250. Ultimately, battles continued to be won by hand-to-hand fighting among foot-soldiers.

However, some aspects of warfare changed. The rise of new weapons, like the longbow and cannon, changed the character of fighting on the battlefield, while the need for troops to serve in France brought an urgent need to change recruitment methods.

Sometimes change was gradual: sometimes it was sudden. There were several factors causing these changes. For example:

- improvements in science and technology enabled the introduction of cannon.
- changes in society, like the decline of feudalism, changed recruitment methods.

By comparing key events in the history of warfare during this time – through case studies like the Battles of Falkirk (1298) and Agincourt (1415) – many of these changes can be seen in action.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this chapter, you will:

- know and understand what happened to the composition of armies in this period, including the roles of infantry, archers and mounted knights
- understand the links between social structure and the command of armies
- understand the impact on warfare of new weapons, like the longbow and gunpowder weapons; and new tactics, such as those used by Scottish schiltrons
- understand the decline of the mounted knight
- know and understand what happened to recruitment, the training of combatants and the provisioning of armies, including requisitioning
- know and understand the impact of warfare on civilians.

Introduction: Warfare in c1250

Learning outcomes

- Understand the nature and experience of warfare in c1250.
- Understand how feudal society affected warfare.

The nature of warfare

Henry III was King of England in 1250. Henry fought a civil war against the English barons; and he fought wars for control of Wales and parts of France. Henry's wars show us what warfare was like at that time.

The size of armies

In about 1250 in Britain, armies normally ranged from 5,000 to 10,000 men.

- When the barons rebelled against Henry III in 1264, their army contained 5,000 men.
- Henry's royal army totalled 8,000; his son, Edward, supported him with 2,000 more troops.

The composition of armies

Armies at this time usually had two parts, **infantry** and **cavalry**. The ratio varied, but the most common was 2:1 – i.e. twice as many infantry as cavalry.

The cavalry were mounted soldiers. They were the elite of the army.

- Some cavalry were men from the upper nobility, like earls and dukes. The upper nobility formed about 30% of the cavalry at this time. Other cavalry were from the lower nobility, such as knights like Sir Roger Bassett, who fought at the Battle of Falkirk in 1298.
- The rest of the cavalry were **men-at-arms**, heavily armed mounted troops brought to battle by the nobles. A nobleman's group – or **retinue** – of men-at-arms might vary from five to 25 men. They were usually men from the **gentry** – wealthy families who held land, but did not have titles.

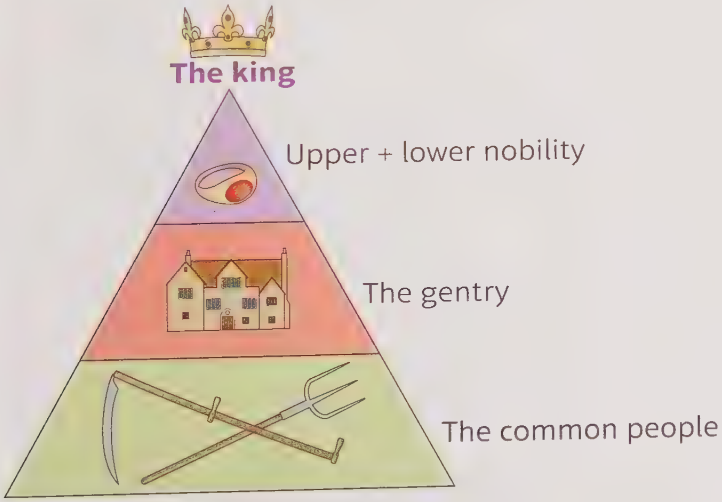


Figure 1.1 Social structure in England in 1250.

The infantry were **common men** who fought as foot-soldiers. They were the bottom rung of the social ladder and were treated like second-rate troops in comparison with the mounted cavalry.

The command of armies

The command of armies was directly linked to the structure of society in England and attitudes in society.

- Kings rewarded supporters by granting them land. They became powerful nobles – leaders of society. In turn, they granted land to their supporters – lower landowners, known as the gentry.
- In return, the nobles and the gentry were expected to command troops in support of the king.

So, command was decided more by **social position** than ability or experience, and the quality of command varied. Nobles were not used to being controlled, so cavalry sometimes ignored orders. For example, in 1264, at the Battle of Lewes, Prince Edward lost control of his cavalry. They abandoned King Henry's main attack and raided the enemy supply wagons instead. Meanwhile, the main attack failed.

Weapons and protection

In around 1250, cavalrymen and infantry fought with a variety of weapons:

- Cavalrymen normally took two horses each to war and fought on horseback. They would be armed with **lances** or thrusting **spears**, perhaps three metres long, and **swords**.
- Most infantry had **swords** and **daggers**. Some had club-like weapons, like a **mace** or a **battle-axe**. Some used **halberds**, which were poles with axe-heads.

- Some infantry used '**brown bills**' – poles with broad-blades and a hook for hauling knights off their horses. Some carried **pikes** – long thrusting spears.
- Some used **bows** or **crossbows**. Bows were about one metre long and could fire arrows about 100 metres. Crossbows were more powerful and very accurate, but slower to fire.

For protection:

- Most cavalrymen wore chainmail garments called **hauberks**. These had a hood – or **coif** – for the head and stretched as far as the knees. The knights (and sometimes horses too) often had colourful cloth **surcoats**. Flat-topped metal **helmets** were also worn and, by 1250, many of these had face-guards, with slits for ventilation and vision.
- Most infantrymen wore leather or padded linen jackets called **gambesons**. The best-defended infantry wore **short mail shirts**. Most infantry wore metal or leather **skull-caps**.

Activity ?

Study Source A and Source B. List the weapons and protective equipment you can see.

Strategy*

Strategy was affected by social attitudes at the time. For example, England in around 1250 was not democratic: the people had no say in government. It was controlled by kings and barons – and they needed to use **military force** to impose their decisions. Warfare, therefore, was a normal part of medieval society.

Kings and barons used warfare to stay in power; and they used force to seize power over others. They used two key features of military strategy to do this:

- **limited warfare**
- **castles**.

Key term

Strategy*

The overall plan used to achieve your objectives.

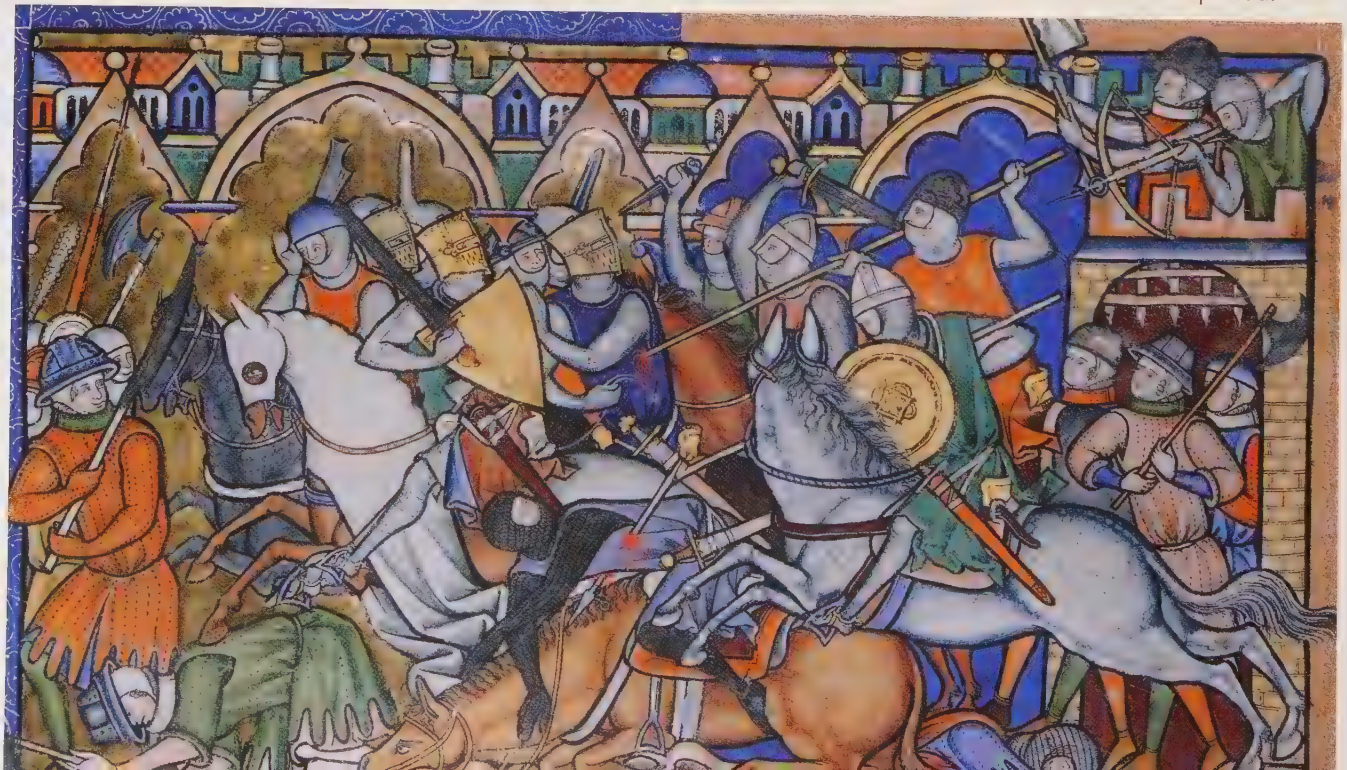
Limited warfare

Limited warfare was forced upon leaders by the nature of society at the time. For example:

- **Henry III had limited resources.** He could only raise quite small armies, with limited weapons.
- **He had limited power.** To raise an army, he had to persuade powerful nobles to support him.

Source A

An illustration from a Bible produced in about 1250. Although it is supposed to show a scene from the Bible, the artist used troops, weapons and a style of combat from his own time, so it is a useful source for historians of the period.



- **Battles were avoided** if possible. Since kings led armies, losing a battle might mean that a king was killed or captured and held for **ransom** (held prisoner until money was paid for his return). Therefore, society in 1250 did not suit all-out warfare. Other aspects of society limited warfare too.
- **The campaigning season** – the months of the year when it was possible to fight – was limited. Most fighting took place from late spring, after people had sown crops, until autumn, when crops needed to be harvested and the weather made it much more difficult to move troops and to fight.
- **Communications** were limited. It was difficult for rival armies to know exactly where their opponents were. They had to rely on limited information from spies amongst the enemy, or scouts, using messengers, bugles, smoke signals, church bells and pigeons.

So, strategy, in 1250, consisted of limited warfare. Commanders often preferred to **manoeuvre** the enemy into a hopeless position and then negotiate a victory; or besiege a **castle**; or attack enemy territory and destroy, or steal, **property** and **food**.

Battles were a last resort. For example, in the 1250s, Llewellyn the Last rejected Henry III's control of Wales. He avoided large battles by sending his forces – mobile bands of warriors – to ambush English troops, raid their camps and food supplies, and then slip away into the woods and mountains. This deliberately limited style of fighting is called **guerrilla warfare**.

Activities ?

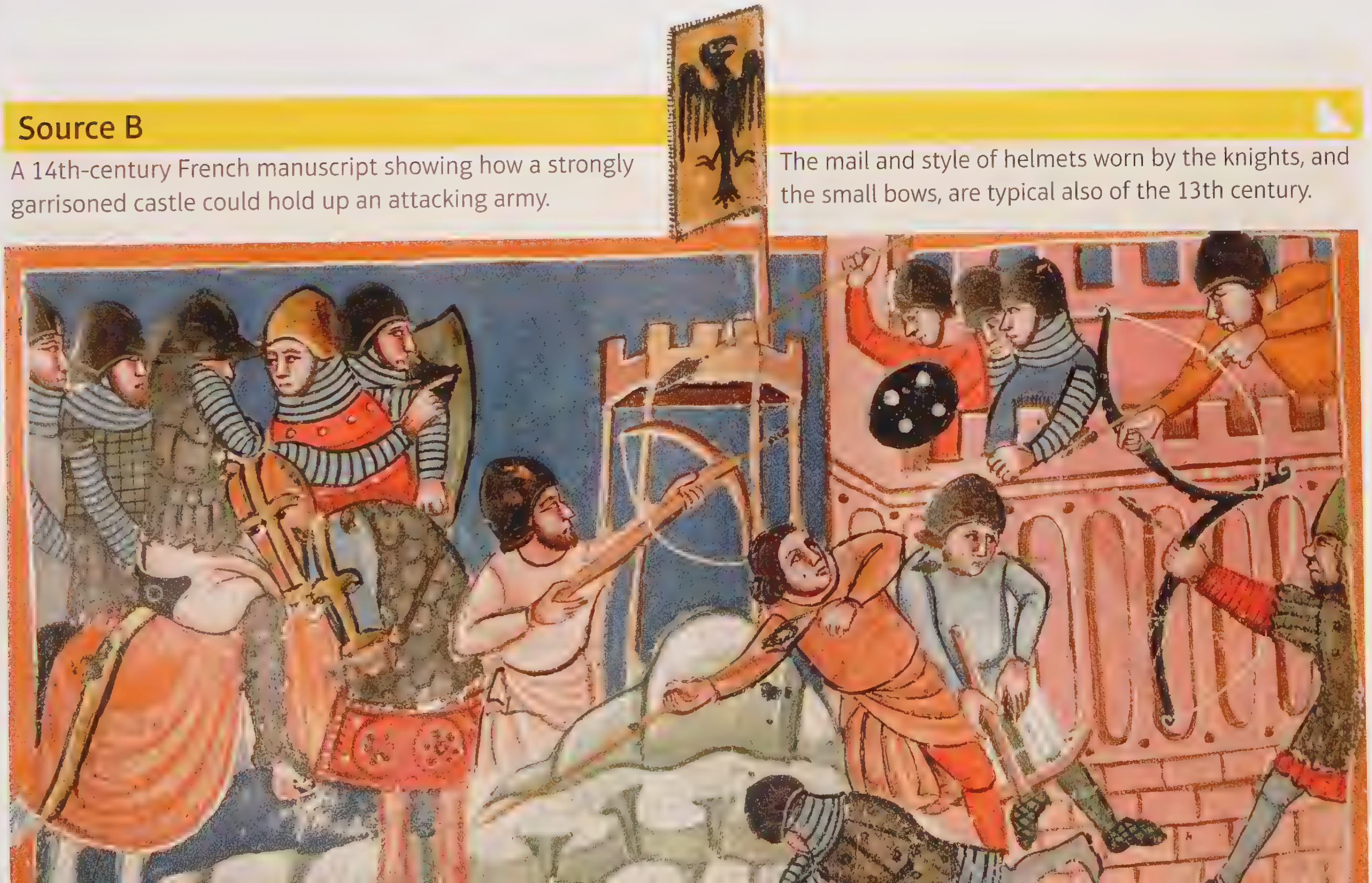
1 Make a quiz about warfare in c1250 to test your classmates. The sections of the quiz should be: 'The size and composition of armies', 'Weapons and protection', 'Strategy and Tactics'. You must write out the questions and answers in full.

2 List four reasons why warfare in c1250 was on a limited scale. Decide the key reason and write a brief speech to explain why it was most important.

3 Have a 'speech-off' in a small group and decide the best reason from your list for Q2. At the end, record the winner and explain the reasons why.

Source B

A 14th-century French manuscript showing how a strongly garrisoned castle could hold up an attacking army. The mail and style of helmets worn by the knights, and the small bows, are typical also of the 13th century.



Castles

Castles and fortified towns were an essential part of defensive strategy in 1250. If an army attacked an area defended by castles:

- the attackers had to **divide** their forces to besiege each castle
- the defenders would have a series of **bases** from which to launch counter-attacks.

This put the attackers at a disadvantage. For example, in 1266, after the Battle of Evesham (1265), Henry III's enemies took refuge inside Kenilworth Castle, in Warwickshire; it took Henry's attacking army six months to get them out.

Extend your knowledge

Securing castles

In 1264, when Simon de Montfort rebelled against Henry III, Henry's first move was to secure the main Midland fortresses in the heart of the country; he then seized the castles at Tonbridge and Kingston, near the capital, London. Henry was taking care to secure key castles before confronting his enemy. Why did he do this?

Source C

Kenilworth Castle, mainly built in the 1200s.

Tactics

Tactics are the way commanders use their forces to get the upper hand.

Tactical formations

Positioning an army was an important part of tactics. For example, a commander could position his army on high ground, so that his enemy had to attack uphill. It was also important to protect the **flanks** (sides) of your infantry, so that enemy cavalry could not attack them from the side. Commanders could protect their flanks by positioning their own cavalry there, or by positioning infantry so that their flanks were protected by geographical features, such as woods or rivers.

At the Battle of Lewes (1264), Simon de Montfort placed his army on the crest of Offham Hill. His flanks reached sharp banks on the right and left, too steep for cavalry. The land in front was a long slope that the royal army had to climb.

Cavalry tactics

Cavalry were seen as the shock troops and dominant force on the battlefield. Their main tactics were:

- **The mounted charge.** At the Battle of Evesham (1265), Prince Edward used cavalry to target the enemy commander, Simon de Montfort. Mounted knights smashed through the enemy lines, engaged de Montfort's bodyguard and hacked him to pieces. It was a decisive move.
- **Rout and chase.** Cavalry tried to scatter enemy infantry. Once foot-soldiers ran, they were easy for mounted troops to chase and cut down. Often, more troops died fleeing than in the battle itself.

Infantry tactics

The infantry's task was to withstand any enemy attack and then overcome the enemy infantry.

- **The shield wall.** Men stood, with overlapping shields, and spears or pikes, facing enemy attacks.
- **Archers.** Archers were used to weaken enemy troops. They usually played a minor role in tactics at this time. They had no significance in Henry III's battles at Lewes (1264) and Evesham (1265).
- **The mêlée.** If the archers and cavalry could not break the enemy, then the infantry would attack. Once infantry met, combat was frenzied hand-to-hand fighting, sometimes called a mêlée. Men slashed with swords, stabbed with spears and daggers, and crushed skulls and limbs with clubs.

The experience of warfare

The **nature** of warfare tells us how armies were **made up**, **who** fought in them and **how** they fought. But what was the human **experience** of warfare in c1250?

Recruitment of cavalry

In about 1250, there were several ways that people could be recruited into Henry III's cavalry. The most common way depended upon the **feudal system**. This is an example of the way the nature of society affected warfare. It was a social system designed to provide and support troops.

Under the feudal system:

- The king granted his most powerful supporters control of large areas of England. They were usually earls or dukes, and were known as the king's **tenants-in-chief**. They recognised the king as their lord and promised to give him military support.
- These tenants-in-chief granted control of some of their land to lower nobles, known as **sub-tenants**. In return, they promised military support to the tenants-in-chief.

By 1250, the military support promised was measured as a number of **knights**, usually in fives or tens. This number was the **knight's fee**. A tenant may have promised a fee of one, five, 20 or 100 knights to his lord. **Knight service** was limited to 40 days' military service per year. Therefore, the way English society was **organised** had a major effect on the way armies were recruited.

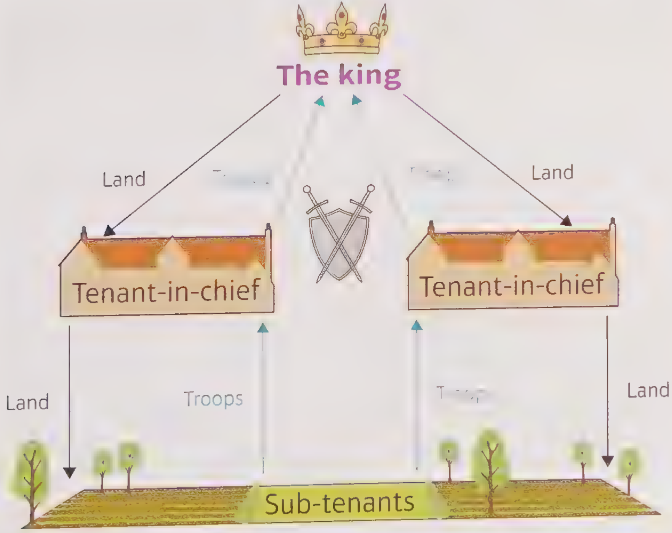


Figure 1.2 The feudal system and recruitment of armies.

Feudal knights

In 1250, most of Henry III's troops would have been **feudal knights**, serving their **feudal duty** to their lord. Henry III would have been able to call upon about 5,000 knights' fees, though they were rarely all called upon at once. Feudal troops made up the majority of the king's armies. However, by 1250, society was changing. The feudal system was breaking down. Kings found it hard to enforce their feudal dues. As a result, extra forms of recruitment were becoming more common.

The Assize of Arms

An extra way that kings recruited troops was by the Assize of Arms. This assessed people's wealth to see if they should support the king with arms. It was a bit like taxation: the wealthier people were, the more military support they should give. For example, in 1250, Henry III was using an Assize of Arms that said all men with land worth £15 had to supply him with a mounted knight, with a horse, hauberk, iron helmet, sword and dagger. Land worth £15 in 1250 would only be worth about £8,000 today, so many landowners would have been required to fight in the king's army under this system.

Mercenaries and scutage

Attitudes in society towards the feudal system were changing and this caused change. By 1250, kings found it difficult to force people to honour their feudal duties or accept the Assize of Arms. Because of this, kings routinely accepted money from people instead of military service. This payment was called **scutage**, or 'shield money'. This money was used by kings to pay for cavalry to fight alongside feudal troops. As a result, in 1250, Henry III was using scutage to employ paid troops, called **mercenaries**.

Mercenaries were hired, on a temporary basis, from **captains** – experienced soldiers who supplied units of 10 or 100 men for cash. Captains would charge about two shillings per day for mounted knights, or one shilling for men-at-arms. Some of these were foreign troops, from Germany or France.

Mercenaries were better trained, better disciplined and better armed than feudal troops, but much more expensive.

The Royal Household

A small number of troops were employed on a **permanent** basis. The Royal Household were permanent, paid troops who were employed to serve the king. It is estimated that Henry III had about 500 troops in his Royal Household. They were paid about £5 per year, and one shilling per week extra on campaign. They were usually mounted troops.

Pay in 1250	Spending power of 1250 pay today
1 shilling	£25
2 shillings	£50
5 shillings	£125
20 shillings = £1	£500
£5	£2,500

Recruitment of infantry

Feudal infantry

There had never been any feudal duty, like knight service, for ordinary people to serve the king in war as infantry. So, to recruit infantry, Henry III relied on a number of informal measures. For example:

- Some joined his army out of loyalty to their king or a desire to defend their country or region.
- Others joined for adventure, or to escape poverty at home in exchange for regular food and even the chance of **plunder**: sometimes, when an enemy army or settlement was defeated, money and valuable goods could be stolen from bodies or houses and divided amongst the victorious army.

None of these methods produced big or well-equipped armies. A better source of men was the Assize of Arms.

The Assize of Arms

The Assize of Arms provided the beginnings of a reliable source of infantry. As well as demanding that wealthy men should serve the king as knights, it began to demand that all men of England should be ready to serve the king for 40 days, equipped with weapons, as troops in the infantry. For example, Henry III used the Assize of Arms to recruit infantry during the Barons' War of 1264–67. Commissioners of Array* visited selected parts of the country to assess people and to inspect their weapons. Often, local people shared the cost of equipping a few local volunteers, providing them with arms and enough supplies for 40 days' service.

Training

During the reign of Henry III, there were no permanent armies and no **barracks** (bases) for soldiers. As a result, there was little training for warfare.

For infantry, generally, each issue of the Assize of Arms made it clear that those who answered the call to arms should be skilled at using their weapons. But, in practice, there was almost no organised training for infantry.

For cavalry, consisting of the nobility and the gentry, it was different. Amongst these classes, most young men were trained in military skills, especially horsemanship and the use of lances and other weapons. Young men competed to outshine each other at tournaments. A culture of chivalry* arose that dictated how knights should behave towards each other in combat. But, much of this was about individual combat. There was practically no training in how to fight in large, disciplined groups.

Key terms

Commissioners of Array*

Officials appointed by the king to organise the recruitment of troops under the Assize of Arms.

Chivalry*

A code of conduct adopted by medieval knights. In general social life, it involved politeness and courtesy, especially towards women. In war, it stressed bravery, loyalty and respect for the enemy.

Activities ?

1. In pairs, try to speak for a minute about the feudal system. Avoid hesitation, repetition or deviation.
2. Create a table about recruitment. The headings are: 'Methods of Recruitment', 'Advantages', 'Disadvantages'. Create rows for: 'Cavalry Recruitment' and 'Infantry Recruitment'. Discuss your table with others, then improve it.
3. List four ways in which the nature of **English society** affected the nature of **armies** and **warfare** in about 1250.

Provisioning

It was hard to provide food for armies and all their horses. There were a variety of solutions used.

- Men were expected to bring their **own provisions** for the first 40 days.
- **Baggage trains** of wagons, full of provisions paid for by the king, followed the armies.
- Sometimes, supplies were sent ahead by road or sea and stored in bases, known as **supply depots**, until the army arrived.
- Often, though, armies resorted to **demanding** supplies from local people. In home territory, they usually paid. In enemy territory, they often just stole what they needed.

Source D

An illustration from the Morgan Picture Bible, produced c1250. It shows an army taking prisoners, sheep and cattle by force. Like Source A, this is a Bible scene, but the artist used troops and weapons from his own time.

Summary

- Armies around 1250 were **small** and consisted of **cavalry** and **infantry**.
- The **command** of armies was shaped by the class structure of English **society**.
- The two key aspects of strategy in warfare at this time were **limited warfare** and **castles**.
- Cavalry were recruited by **feudal duties**, the **Assize of Arms** and **paying** for troops.
- Infantry were recruited by appeals to **loyalty** and the **Assize of Arms**.
- **Training** was very limited for infantry; training for cavalry was more common.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give examples of the size of armies in about 1250.

S2 Describe, in detail, the tactics of cavalry and infantry.

S3 What was the Assize of Arms, and what kind of troops were paid in armies in about 1250?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, look up the answers on pages 11–16 and record them.

Challenge

C1 'Cavalry was the dominant force of the army in about 1250'. What are the arguments for and against this?

C2 How were the key features of English society in about 1250 **linked** to the key features of: the command of armies, the strategy of armies, and the recruitment and training of armies?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

1.1 The nature of warfare, 1250–1500

Learning outcomes

- Understand the role of the infantry, archer and mounted knight in medieval armies.
- Understand the impact on warfare of schiltrons, the longbow, and gunpowder.
- Understand the reasons for, and impact of, the decline of the mounted knight.

Change and continuity, 1250–1500

War was a **normal** part of medieval society, especially between 1250 and 1500.

- From 1250 to 1500, almost continuously, English kings fought for control of **Wales** and **Scotland**.
- From 1337 to 1453, England fought for land in France in the **Hundred Years' War**.
- From 1455 to 1485, rival families fought for the English throne in the **Wars of the Roses**.

Several aspects of warfare – though not all of them – changed during this intense fighting.

Continuity

The size of armies

The size of armies, 1250–1500, is an example of **continuity** rather than change.

- In 1264, at the Battle of Lewes, the size of Henry III's army was about 10,000.
- In 1415, at the Battle of Agincourt, the size of Henry V's army was about 8,000.
- In 1485, at the Battle of Bosworth, the size of Richard III's army was about 12,000.

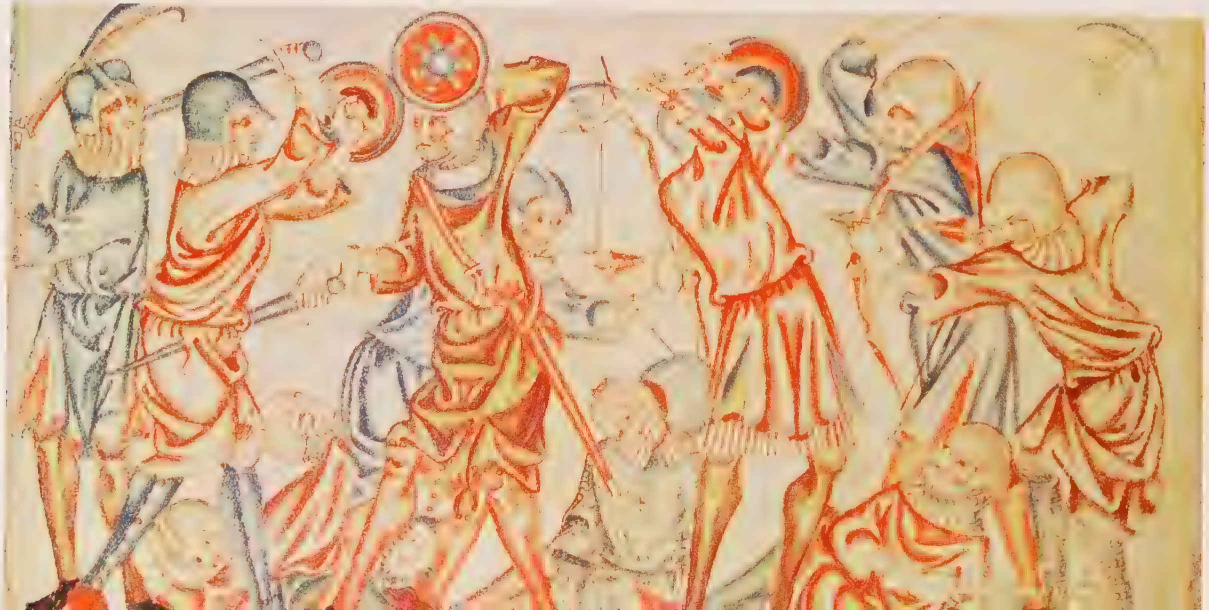
Strategy and command

Military strategy was another example of **continuity** in warfare during this time. Even though many battles were fought between 1250 and 1500, the two key features of English strategy stayed the same:

- **Limited warfare:** for example, during the Hundred Years' War, English armies carried out dozens of ***chevauchees*** – short raids on horseback by small armies of 2–3,000, intended to terrorise the local population and make it impossible for the French to raise taxes or grow crops.

Source A

English and Scottish infantry fighting at Bannockburn in 1314, from the Holkham Bible (c1320–30). The weapons and the hand-to-hand fighting that usually decided battles had not changed much since 1250.



- **Capturing or building castles and fortified towns.** For example, in the 1200s Edward I built castles in Wales to help him control his land there. In the 1400s, Henry V captured French castles, at Harfleur and other French towns, as bases from which he could control Normandy.

Another example of continuity was the command of armies. Throughout the period 1250 to 1500, kings continued to use their closest relatives and leading nobles as commanders of their armies.

- Edward I used the Earl of Surrey as his senior commander at the Battle of Falkirk in 1298.
- Henry V used the Duke of York as his senior commander at Agincourt in 1415.

Change

Schiltrons, and their impact on warfare

Pikes were wooden poles, three to five metres long, with metal tips, used by infantry to thrust at the enemy. Pikes were not new. They had mainly been used to defend infantry against attacks by cavalry. However, in this period, new uses for pikes emerged, along with a new formation.

Scottish pikemen formed huge circles or squares of up to 2,000 men. These formations were called schiltrons. With pikes directed at the enemy, they were like huge, lethal hedgehogs.

- Schiltrons were a **natural** defensive formation: under attack, men tend to cluster together; and horses were reluctant to charge a solid wall of pikes if the schiltron remained tightly packed.
- Getting men to **defend** with pikes was **normal**; however, getting pikemen to **advance** in a group, to attack, was **harder** – and **new**. This is what the Scots did to defeat the English at the Battle of Stirling Bridge in 1297.

The Scots used schiltrons to defeat the English again at the Battle of Bannockburn in 1314 (see Source B). This time, the Scottish schiltrons advanced and defeated a force of English **cavalry**. It was a tactic that increased the power of the infantry; it also reduced the strength of the mounted knights, because it showed that they could be defeated by attacking pikemen.

Extend your knowledge

The Battle of Stirling Bridge (1297)

The English and Scottish armies, both about 6,000 strong, faced each other across the River Forth. William Wallace was the leader of the Scottish rebels to the north of the river. He drew up his infantry, bearing pikes, in rectangular schiltrons, 100 men wide and six men deep.

- He watched while 2,000 English, mainly infantry, crossed a narrow bridge over the river.
- Before the English could organise after the crossing, Wallace surprised them. He used his schiltrons, not for defence, but for **attack**.
- Trapped and outnumbered, against the river bank, all but 300 English troops were killed.

Source B

In about 1350, Sir Thomas Gray, an English knight, wrote a history of England called *Scalacronica*. It is based on memories of relatives who fought in key battles. His father fought at the Battle of Bannockburn.

The... Scots came in a line of schiltrons and attacked the English columns, which were jammed together and could not operate against them... because their horses were impaled on the spikes. The troops in the English rear fell back into the ravine of the Bannock Burn, each tumbling one over the other.

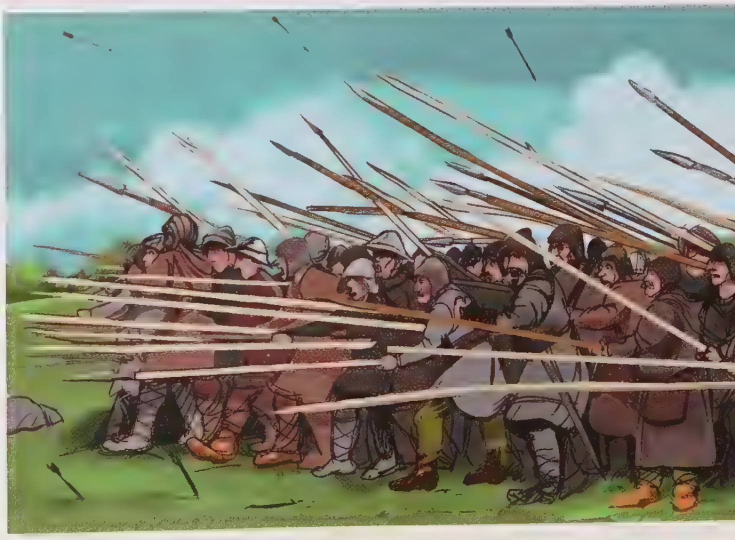


Figure 1.3 An artist's impression of the bristling wall of spears of a Scottish schiltron.

One change – the use of pikes, organised in schiltrons to attack the enemy – was leading to another change in warfare: the decline of mounted knights (see page 24). Soon, that decline was accelerated by another change – the longbow.

The longbow and its impact on warfare

Longbows were used in Wales from about 1200. But, from about 1290, longbows started to be used in English armies. This was a change.

Longbows were about two metres long, taller than most of the archers who used them. They were made from thick lengths of yew or elm wood. The archer held the arrow close to his ear before firing. This took great strength; so, it took a long time to train a longbow archer. However, longbows had several advantages:

- **Rate of fire:** a trained longbow archer could shoot ten to 15 arrows per minute – much quicker than the two to three shots of crossbows.
- **Distance:** a longbow was effective up to 200 metres, twice the range of shorter bows.
- **Power:** longbows were more powerful than shorter bows and crossbows. Their arrows were a metre long and could pierce armour. Records state that a longbow arrow once pierced a knight's mail, his thigh **and** his saddle, then killed his horse – leaving the knight pinned to the horse.

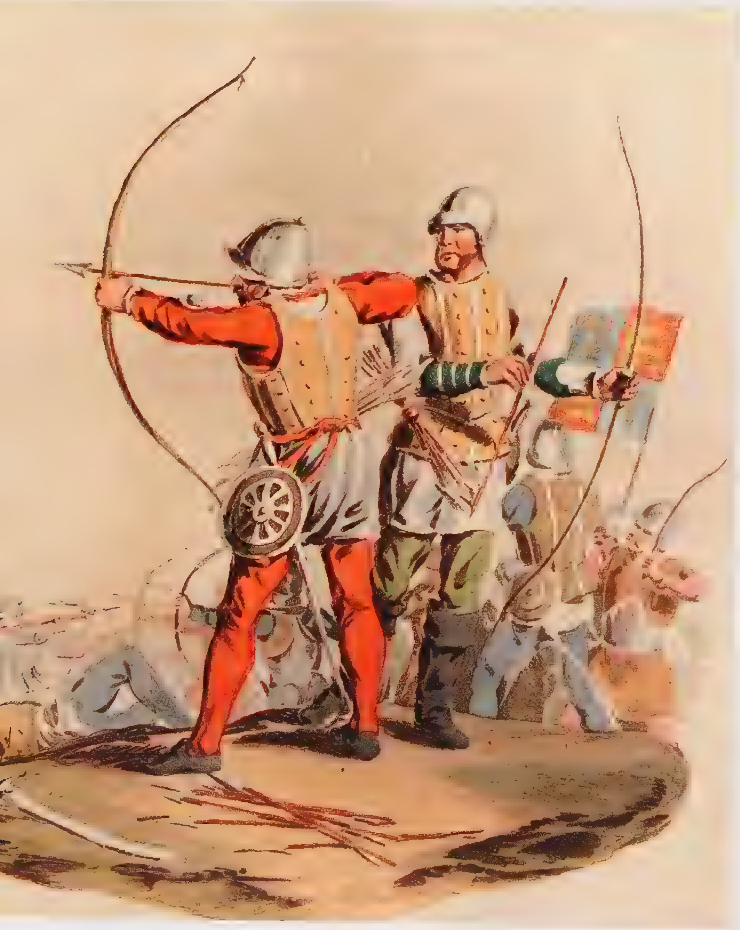


Figure 1.4 Modern drawing of 15th-century longbow archers.

The effective use of large numbers of longbows was a feature of English armies for well over a century.

- In 1298, at the Battle of Falkirk, they helped King Edward I defeat the Scots.
- In battles such as Poitiers (1356) and Agincourt (1415), longbows were key to English victories over the French during the Hundred Years' War.

Longbows had become the dominant force on the battlefield. So, compared to 1250, the use of the longbow in battles was an important **change**.

Individuals cause change. Sometimes individual people are a cause of change. The successful use of longbows by Edward I meant that longbows became a key part of English armies for the next 150 years.

Extend your knowledge

Poitiers (1356)

Each archer in the English army at the Battle of Poitiers could fire at least ten arrows per minute. One historian has estimated that English longbows launched 60,000 arrows at the French cavalry in just one minute. As a result, 40% of all the knights in the French army were killed.

Activity ?

In groups, come to a decision about the following questions. Record your decisions.

a What was a pike and how was it normally used before the Battle of Stirling Bridge?
b What was a schiltron?
c What tactic did the Scots use, at the Battle of Stirling Bridge, that was unusual?
d What impact did this new Scottish tactic have?

Technology causes change. Sometimes new technology – like the longbow – is a key cause of change. Its introduction by English armies in about 1290 caused changes to tactics, the composition of armies and armour.

Tactics changed

The power of the longbow created a change in the tactics of English armies, so that they could get the most out of this new weapon.

- **On the march**, archers rode on horseback – though they still fought on foot. This meant that the whole army could move at the speed of cavalry.
- In **attack**, before mounted cavalry charged, archers were still used to soften up the enemy – but they now did this with much greater effect.
- But, in **defence**, there was a change. English knights and men-at-arms dismounted to strengthen the centre of the defensive line, fighting on foot alongside the infantry. This meant that archers could be placed on the flanks. As the enemy attacked, they were met by showers of arrows, weakening their charge. The attackers were funnelled towards the men-at-arms. When the mêlée formed, the archers continued to fire into the flanks of the enemy forces and then joined in the mêlée.

This was the classic formation of many English victories, such as at Dupplin Moor and Agincourt.

Extend your knowledge

Dupplin Moor (1332)

At the Battle of Dupplin Moor, the Scots attacked the English army head-on. The dismounted English men-at-arms in the centre held firm, whilst longbow archers advanced on the flanks and poured arrows into the Scots. Unable to retreat because of the bodies of the men killed by arrows, the Scots were trapped in a hail of arrows and almost wiped out.

The composition of armies changed

The success of the longbow changed the English army.

- Armies began to have more infantry and fewer cavalry. In about 1250, the normal ratio of infantry to cavalry was 2:1. By about 1400, it was 3:1.
- The dominance of cavalry was reduced. This had already been dented by Scottish schiltrons. Their value was now reduced by the importance of archers.

Armour changed

The use of the longbow also led to change in the protection troops wore.

- **Plate armour:** from about 1300, chainmail was reinforced by adding plates of metal. First, breastplates covered the chest; then plates were added to protect shoulders, elbows, hands, knees, shins and feet.
- **Suits of armour:** by about 1420, the whole body was covered and whole suits of armour developed.

Armour protected the wearer from slashing swords, but it only gave limited protection against arrows. Many of the French at the Battle of Poitiers (1356) wore plate armour and they still died in large numbers. And it was even less useful against firearms (see page 23).

Extend your knowledge

From chainmail to armour

In 1298, a brass tomb engraving was made of Roger of Trumpington, showing him in chainmail. In 1325, a similar engraving shows John of Creke wearing armour. You can find images showing these engravings on the internet. Compare the images. John of Creke is wearing a type of helmet called a bassinet and plate armour, including a cuirass, brassarts, poleyns, greaves, sabatons and gauntlets. Do an internet search to find out what these items were. Also, look for them in Source A on page 28.

Activities

?

Think about the way longbows came to be used and what changes they caused.

1. Write a paragraph starting: 'The use of longbows was a **change** in warfare because...'
2. Write a paragraph starting: 'The use of longbows was a **cause of change** because...'
3. In a group, discuss this question: How does change happen? Jot down your conclusions.

Gunpowder and its impact on warfare

Gunpowder is another example of new science and improved technology causing change in warfare. In 1250–1320, people knew about gunpowder, but it was hardly used by English armies.

Gunpowder was first made by the Chinese in about 900AD. By 1250, there were some people in Europe who were interested in science and experimented with chemicals so that they could copy the Chinese. An English friar, Roger Bacon, was one of these. In 1267, he wrote that gunpowder had a roar greater than thunder and a flash greater than lightning.

Cannon, 1320–1430

During this time, the technology of making cannon began, but they had little military significance.

- The earliest cannon had wooden barrels, bound with metal bands, and shot round balls of stone.
- **In 1327**, Edward III's army used cannon against the Scots.
- **In 1346**, the English army used cannon during the Hundred Years' War against France. They were used in the siege of Calais and in the Battle of Crècy, but they made little impact. A contemporary writer said that the English merely 'fired off some cannons to frighten' the enemy.
- **In 1415**, Henry V used 12 cannon to besiege the castle at Harfleur. But, after five weeks, the walls remained intact. The town eventually gave up because its food supplies had been cut off.

Source C

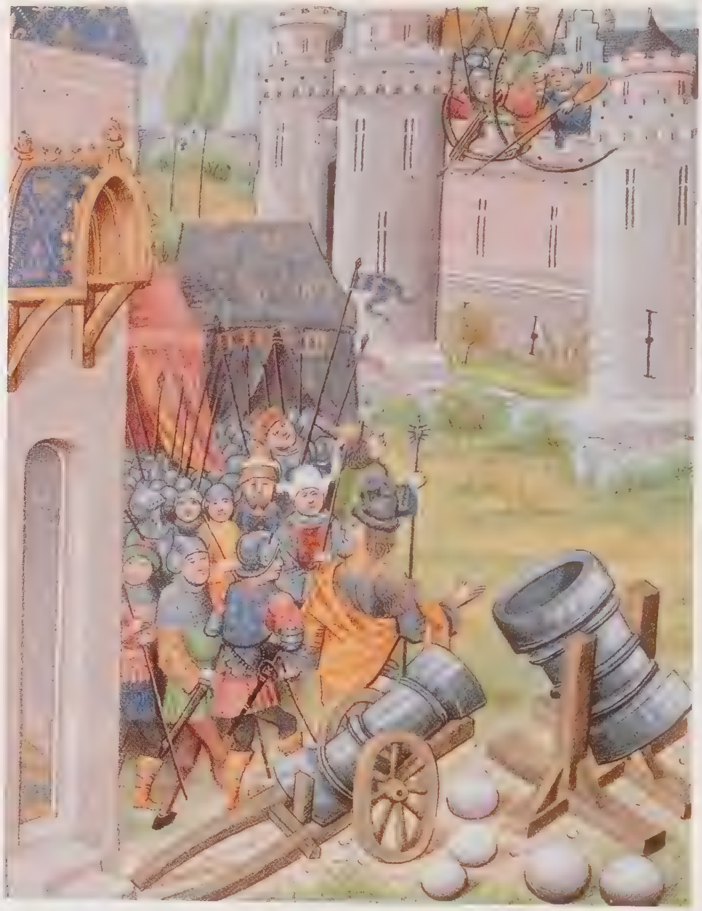
The English army's siege of Berwick, in 1333, described in a chronicle (a contemporary history). The author is unknown.

> *They made many assaults with guns and other [siege] engines… wherewith they destroyed many a fair house; and churches were also beaten to the earth with great stones that pitilessly came out of the guns… [but the enemy] abided there so long, till those that were in the town failed victuals [ran out of food].*

From these examples, it's clear that cannon were not yet a dominant force in warfare. In the 1320s, they had an effective range of only 100 yards. They were also heavy and therefore slow to transport around battlefields. For this reason, they were mainly used in sieges during this period.

Source D

A manuscript illustration from a 15th-century chronicle, showing the use of cannon and mortars to attack the city of Bordeaux, during the Hundred Years' War between England and France.



Cannon, 1430–1500

By 1430, cannon were improving. **Technology** was the reason.

- **Metal was used.** Foundries, which made metal goods, used skills honed in making church bells to experiment with iron, copper, bronze and brass barrels. Metal cannon balls gradually replaced stone.
- **Design improved.** At first, barrels were not much longer than their diameter. By 1430, as technology improved, they were sometimes three times as long as their diameter, giving greater accuracy, power and range.
- **Trunnions were invented.** These were rods at each side of the barrel that allowed the barrel to be lifted into higher or lower slots on the frame of the cannon. This made it easier to adjust the height and distance of fire.

- **Specialist cannon were made.** These included light, mobile cannon; heavy cannon, or **bombards**, to fire stone balls weighing half a ton; and **mortars** or **howitzers** to lob missiles high over castle walls.

The impact of improved cannon

Sometimes cannon were useful in battles. At the Battle of Castillon (1453), 1,000 English cavalry took heavy losses from French cannon. However, cannon were mainly useful in sieges. Tall castle and city walls were suddenly vulnerable. Henry V's 12 cannon had failed for five weeks to defeat Harfleur in 1415. But, because of improvements in cannon, in 1449, Harfleur fell to attack by 16 French cannon after only 17 days. So, castle walls needed to be made thicker and shorter to withstand cannon and to make them harder to knock down.

Firearms, 1400 onwards

During the 15th century, firearms were developed. These were gunpowder weapons that could be carried and fired by individuals. Firearms like the **arquebus** (sometimes called the **hackbut**) became common on the battlefield in Europe. In 1490, the Venetian army replaced all its crossbows with arquebuses.

However, it is difficult to argue that gunpowder weapons – whether cannon or firearms – were a key force in English warfare by 1500.

Cannon were:

- unreliable – in 1460, King James II of Scotland was killed when one of his own cannon blew apart
- slow to reload and inaccurate over long distances
- only really useful in sieges – they were very heavy to manoeuvre for battles.

Firearms were:

- slow to load (powder and shot had to be rammed down the barrel and a smouldering piece of rope had to be kept alight to ignite the powder)
- unreliable (firing could fail in damp weather)
- used very little by English armies before 1500. (The longbow was so successful that firearms were adopted more slowly in England than in other parts of Europe.)

At the Battle of Bosworth (1485), where many cannonballs were recovered from the battlefield, there is almost no evidence of shot from firearms at all.

Timeline

Gunpowder and the development of cannon

c1250 Gunpowder being made in Europe.

1267 Roger Bacon, describes making and exploding gunpowder in England.

1327 English use gunpowder-charged cannon – to little effect – in battle against the Scots.

1327 The first English illustration of a cannon appears.

1346 English use cannon – to little effect – in the siege of Calais.

1415 English use 12 cannon in five week siege of Harfleur, which surrenders for lack of food.

1449 French use 16 cannon to pound Harfleur into surrender in 17 days.

1485 Battle of Bosworth. Many cannonballs fired, but almost no evidence of handguns being used.

Activities ?

1. Make a timeline of key battles, 1250–1500.
2. Draw a graph. Label the horizontal axis: '1250 to 1500'. The vertical axis represents how important gunpowder weapons were: not important at the bottom, very important at the top. Draw a line to show how the importance of gunpowder weapons changed, 1250–1500.
3. How did the following affect the development of gunpowder weapons?
   - a science
   - b technology
4. Consider this statement: 'There was great progress in gunpowder weapons, 1250–1500'. List the reasons you agree and the reasons you disagree. What is your overall conclusion?

The decline of the mounted knight

In about 1250, the mounted knights of the cavalry were the cream of the English army. They were:

- a **large** part of the army
- its key **tactical** force
- its social and military **leaders**.

By 1500, their dominance in all these areas had not disappeared entirely, but had declined.

Reasons for change

In about 1250, the mounted charge was often the key to victory. Cavalry were the tanks of medieval times. If possible, they were the decisive shock force that punched through opposition defences. If this did not work, they weakened and disrupted the enemy before the infantry engaged. From about 1290, the role of cavalry was changed by a **combination** of factors.

- **Pikes** were used, not just to defend against cavalry, but even to attack and defeat it.
- **Longbows** weakened the enemy infantry better than cavalry and could also destroy cavalry.
- **Cannon** and **firearms** later began to do the same jobs as longbows.

Technology as a cause of change. Note that improved technology – better bows and new gunpowder weapons – were a key cause of the decline of the mounted knight.

The decline of the mounted knight caused a series of other changes in English armies.

Tactical change

Cavalry tactics changed. From about 1330, the English army learned to use cavalry differently. Instead of acting alone, as an elite strike force, cavalry were used as part of an **integrated** force, working alongside other types of troops. During the Hundred Years' War, they:

- took **specialist** tasks, like patrolling, foraging for food, scouting and raiding
- **dismounted** in battle, joining the infantry in defence, while archers weakened the enemy charge
- **mounted** and chased down fleeing troops, once the enemy's attack was repelled.

This was an important role. But not the **separate**, **superior** role cavalry had held before.

The French did not make these changes. This is an important reason for English victories, like Crècy, Poitiers and Agincourt, during the Hundred Years' War.

Change in numbers

The number of cavalry in armies changed.

- By about 1400, the ratio of cavalry to infantry had changed to about 1:3, from 1:2 in 1250. For example, the 1370 campaign to France had 1,500 mounted cavalry and 4,000 archers.
- In Henry VI's campaigns, in France in the 1440s, the ratio averaged 1:10.

Change in social structure

The social class and command of cavalry changed.

- In about 1250, with the feudal system the main means of recruitment, about 30% of English cavalry were from the **nobility**. But as the feudal system declined, many knights paid scutage instead of fighting. Only 5% of cavalry were nobles for the English campaign in France in 1375.
- More mercenaries were employed as mounted men-at-arms. They had their own leaders (or captains). This weakened the link between social class and **command**.

Exam-style question, Section B

The use of pikes was the most important reason for the decline of mounted knights, 1250–1500.

How far do you agree? Explain your answer.

You may use the following in your answer:

- schiltrons
- the longbow.

You **must** also use information of your own. **16 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis and evaluation of causation and consequence. Your answer must be written as an argument, for and against the statement in the question; and you must give evidence and examples to back up your points. To get top marks you also need to include a point of your own.

By 1500, the mounted knight still had a role in English armies and the mounted charge was still a fearsome force.

- A mounted knight (70 kg), with his armour (up to 30 kg) and weapons (20 kg), bearing down on the enemy at 15mph was a frightening sight.
- When you add the weight of the horse, this totalled well over half a ton (500 kg).
- Even against longbows and firearms, the mounted knight still struck with great power.

However, the cavalry of 1500 was a **smaller**, **socially different** and more **flexible** force compared with the elite cavalry of around 1250.

Activities ?

Make a table with four columns. The four headings are: 'Date', 'Battle', 'Combatants', 'Key Features'. Look back through pages 11–24 to find information about individual battles.

1. In the 'Combatants' column, write details of the leaders and armies involved.
2. In the 'Key Features' column, list any details of the battle that you could use as examples of a special feature of warfare at this time: 'undisciplined cavalry lost Henry the battle'; 'pikes used to defeat cavalry'; 'longbows were the decisive weapon'.
3. Use the battles to give an example of something that changed in warfare, 1250–1500. Then use them to give an example of something that did not change in warfare, 1250–1500.

THINKING HISTORICALLY

Cause and Consequence

The language of causation

Study these words and phrases. They are useful in describing the role of causes and how they are related to each other and to events.

motivated
exacerbated
underlying
precondition
allowed
created the potential
prevented
triggered
influenced
determined the timing
impeded
enabled
deepened the crisis
catalyst
accelerated
led to
developed
sparked

1. Create a table with the following column headings: 'word', 'meaning', 'timing'. Write out each word or phrase in a separate row of the 'word' column.
2. Discuss the meaning of each word or phrase with a partner. For each word or phrase, write a short definition in the 'meaning' column.
3. Is each word or phrase more likely to describe a short-term, medium-term or long-term cause? In the 'timing' column, write 'short', 'medium' or 'long'.
4. Look at the following incomplete sentences. Write three versions of each sentence, using different words and phrases from the table above to complete them. You can add extra words to make the sentences work. For each sentence, decide which version is the best.
   - **a** The development of longbows and cannon… the decline of the mounted knight.
   - **b** The decline of the feudal system… changes in recruitment to armies.
   - **c** The longbow… the English victory at Agincourt.
5. You can also describe the importance of causes. Place the words below in order of importance. You should put words that suggest a cause is very important at the top, and words that suggest a cause is less important at the bottom of your list.

necessary
supported
contributed to
negligible
added to
marginal
fundamental
influenced

Source E

An illustration from Sir Thomas Holme's Book of Arms, dating from about 1480. It shows two knights in armour and colourful tabards (coat or tunic) practising their sword-play at a tournament. Despite the decline of their importance on the battlefield, even as late as 1480, mounted knights still trained for combat. This is an example of continuity.

Summary

- England was involved in almost continuous warfare from 1250–1500.
- The size of armies, many weapons and military strategy are examples of continuity in warfare.
- The use of the pike, especially in schiltrons, as an attacking tactic is an example of change.
- The longbow and its impact on armour, army composition and tactics, is also change.
- Gunpowder weapons and their impact on warfare is an example of change.
- The decline of the mounted knight is also an example of change.
- New weapons and developments in science and technology were factors that caused change.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give examples of continuity in army size, weaponry and strategy during this period.

S2 Describe, in detail, how pikes and schiltrons were used for attack at this time.

S3 Describe, in detail, how longbows were used and what difference this made.

S4 Describe, in detail, the development of gunpowder weapons and their impact to 1500.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, look up the answers in pages 18–24 and record the answers for future reference.

Challenge

C1 Explain how **a combination of factors** changed the role of mounted knights.

C2 Explain how changes in **science** and **technology** caused change during this period.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

1.2 The experience of warfare, 1250–1500

Learning outcomes

- Understand how medieval armies recruited and trained their soldiers.
- Understand how medieval armies were supplied and provisioned.
- Understand the impact of warfare on English civilians at this time.

Change and continuity

Recruitment

In about 1250, when recruiting **cavalry**, kings used:

- the **feudal duty** of nobles and knights
- the **Assize of Arms** to demand military service from the wealthy
- **paid troops**, like the Royal Household and mercenaries.

In about 1250, when recruiting **infantry**, kings relied on:

- the **loyalty** or desire of common people to defend their homeland
- the **Assize of Arms** to demand military service from poorer men.

Recruitment, 1250–1500

What happened to recruitment 1250–1500 is that:

- **feudal troops** continued to be used until about 1350
- the **Assize of Arms** was used more after 1285, and then continually to 1500
- **payment** for troops was used more after 1337, and became the main way of recruiting.

Feudal troops

Kings and tenants-in-chief called upon their sub-tenants to provide knight service until about 1330. In 1322, Edward II invaded Scotland with 500 troops fulfilling feudal dues. The last summons of feudal troops was in 1327.

There were too many disadvantages to feudal troops.

- Until about 1330, kings could call upon 5,000 mounted feudal troops. But this was quite a small number and it limited the size of armies.
- Feudal troops were only required to fight in England, and only for 40 days. For more, they expected pay.
- The quality of feudal troops was unreliable. They trained very little and the ability of their leaders varied, since they were chosen by social status rather than experience. Added to this, the discipline of feudal knights was unreliable.
- Feudal infantry were part-time soldiers and the quality of their weapons was poor.

Also **new attitudes in society** were a cause of change. The feudal system was breaking down because tenants no longer agreed with the demand for feudal duties. So, as attitudes in society changed, recruitment had to change too.

Assize of Arms

As attitudes in society changed and feudal loyalty declined, kings tried to compel men to join their armies by other means. In 1285, the system of raising troops by the Assize of Arms was clarified and extended by Edward I in **The Statute of Winchester**. This ordered:

- **Commissioners of Array** would be appointed for each town and county.
- These would annually **muster** (gather) all local able-bodied men aged 16–60; this gathering was called the array of arms.
- Every man, however poor, had to bring at least a bow, 24 arrows, a sword and a dagger.
- Wealthier men had to provide armour, a shield, a lance, sword and dagger, and a warhorse.
- Men were then selected to serve for 40 days. For longer, or for campaigns abroad, they were paid. This meant that, apart from local defence, they effectively became **paid** troops.

Recruitment by Assize of Arms continued throughout this whole period. In 1457, for example, in the Wars of the Roses, 180 foot-soldiers mustered in Bridport, in Dorset. However, it is not clear how far people actually complied with the Assize of Arms.

For example, in 1296, a list of 713 men were summoned to serve Edward I in France – only 76 actually sailed.

Paid troops

Because kings could never raise the quantity or quality of troops they needed by **compelling** people to fight – either by feudal dues, or by the Assize of Arms – they increasingly relied on **paying** for troops.

Source A

Sketch of the tomb of Lady Joan and Sir Edmund Thorpe. Sir Edmund died on campaign in France in 1418. He shows the varied ways in which armies were recruited at this time.

- In 1385, he was part of the **feudal** retinue of Sir John Wingfield.
- In 1392, he was a **Commissioner of Array** for Richard II.
- In 1399, he was in the **Royal Household** of Henry IV.

The Royal Household

Because kings had to rely more heavily on paid troops, the size and importance of the Royal Household gradually increased between 1250 and 1500.

- In 1250, Henry III had a Royal Household of about 500 mounted cavalry.
- By 1300, his son, Edward I, had a Royal Household of about 4,000.

Mercenaries

The need for armies increased during the Hundred Years' War, after 1337. So, this was the period when paying for troops became the main method of recruiting. Edward III's army of 1337 was the first English army to consist **entirely** of paid troops.

Typically, the king's agents would enter into a contract – or **indenture** – with a **captain** who could provide a body of troops for a fee. These captains then paid the men. For example, in 1346, the year of the Battle of Crecy, Thomas Dagworth, a famous captain, supplied King Edward III with 300 men-at-arms and 600 archers. For this, he was paid 2,500 marks – the equivalent of over half a million pounds today.

Sometimes, the commanders and troops would be the very same men who would have served the king under the feudal system. So, the role of the nobility in the English army did not disappear.

Activities ?

Draw a graph. The bottom axis of your graph covers the years 1250–1500.

1. Use pages 27–28 to plot lines to show how important the following were during this period: (**a**) Feudal troops (**b**) The Assize of Arms (**c**) Paid troops.
2. Write a paragraph to explain each of the lines.
3. Historians sometimes use the word 'trend' when describing change. A trend is the **general direction** of change. So, for example, we could say: in the world today the trend is for computers to become more and more important in modern life. Write a paragraph to explain how paying troops, rather than compelling troops to serve in the army, was a trend in recruitment, 1250–1500.

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain **one** way in which recruitment was different by c1500 than it had been in c1250. **4 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests knowledge and understanding of difference, features and characteristics. In your answer, you only need to give one way in which recruitment was different by 1500 than it had been in 1250; but to get all of the marks you must give evidence or examples to support what you are saying.

Training

New recruitment methods after 1250 led to better training. But there is no record that any new books of military tactics were produced in England in the period 1250–1500. It seems that the command and organisation of troops remained very simple.

Feudal troops were only summoned for war. Knights practised combat at tournaments; but there was no training for groups of knights. There was no peacetime training for feudal infantry at all.

The Assize of Arms made troops slightly better prepared for war.

- At the annual array of arms, men mustered for inspection by the king's Commissioner of Array. This was a chance to check the quality of weapons and equipment and practise using them.
- In 1285, Edward I's Statute of Winchester insisted that archery targets were set up in every town.
- In 1363, Edward III ordered that there should be archery practice on all feast days and holidays.

Paid troops were better trained. By the 1400s, they were the troops kings preferred for campaigning.

- They were experienced men, fighting in fixed groups and with the same commanders. Paid archers were trained by **centanaurs**, leaders of 100 men, to fire volleys (large groups) of arrows onto targets.
- Kings often insisted on regular musters to inspect paid troops – so that they could be sure that they were getting good value for money. These musters were used to organise training.

Provisioning and requisitioning

The need for armies to have food and equipment was not new. However, from 1250 to 1500, provisioning became more important. There was a **combination** of factors causing this.

- **More war.** England was almost constantly at war from 1250–1500.
- **More horses.** Cavalrymen, in about 1250, each took two warhorses on campaign. By the 1300s, they took four each, and archers also rode horses. This added up to thousands of horses, all needing fodder.
- **More weapons.** At the Battle of Crècy, in 1346, English archers shot half a million arrows in a day. Once gunpowder weapons came in, troops could no longer supply their own ammunition.

Source B

An illustration in a prayer book called *Luttrell's Psalter*, from about 1340, showing archery practice.

So kings had to use a variety of methods to make sure that their armies had enough supplies.

*Requisitioning**

Food and fodder for the army was requisitioned, by the Crown, through compulsory purchase all around the country. This process was called **purveyance**. It was supposed to pay a fair price to the owners.

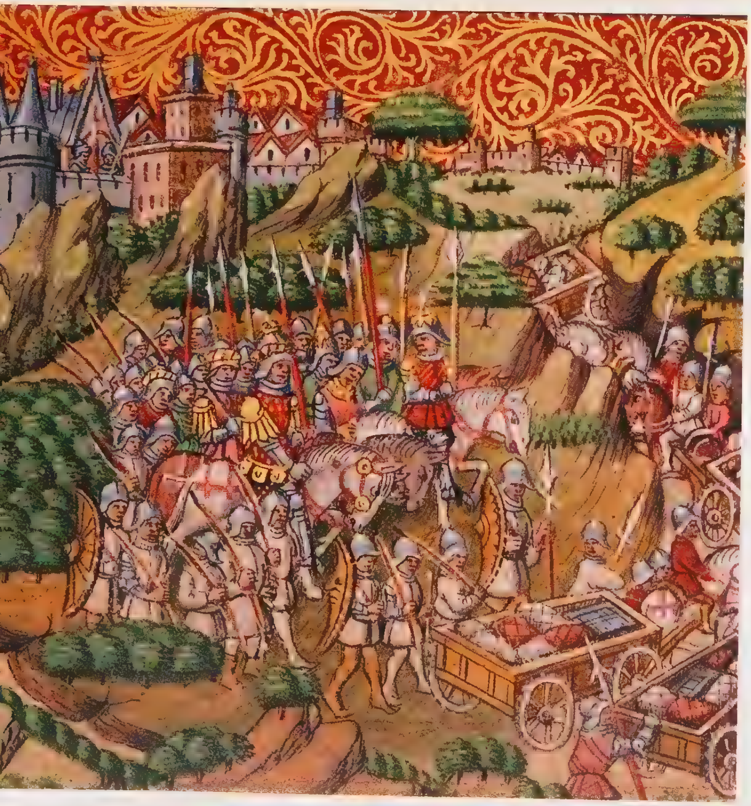
Supplies were then sent, usually by sea, to supply depots.

- In 1297, supplies were sent over 800 km from the Isle of Wight to Scotland.
- Chester served as a supply depot for campaigns in Wales and Berwick for Scotland.

Food provisioning often didn't work. Armies would have to resort to foraging in the countryside and plundering (stealing) food from others, like farmers, local landowners or even monasteries. On many occasions, armies went short of food for weeks.

Source C

An English illustration c1500 showing the baggage train of the King of Sicily.



Key term

Requisitioning*

A requisition was a formal order from the authorities for private property or goods to be handed over to the military forces for their use. Usually, the goods requisitioned would be paid for – but not always.

The Royal Armoury

Weapon stores were also created. During the Hundred Years' War, the Crown began to order large quantities of weapons and store them in the Royal Armoury, based in the Tower of London.

Before 1307, under Edward I, archers supplied their own arrows. By 1360, the Royal Armoury stored 11,000 bows and half a million arrows. In the 1380s, the Crown also bought 87 cannon.

Baggage trains

On campaign, armies transported supplies in baggage trains – convoys of wagons and pack animals that followed the army. This baggage train would have to carry the army's weapons, armour, tent canvas, tent poles, tools, cooking equipment and food. An army of 15,000 men would need over 100 carts in its baggage train. The carts were pulled by horses, which also needed to be fed, making the problem of finding enough provisions even harder. Baggage trains also slowed the army down; they could only move at about 25 to 30 km per day. If an army's baggage train was destroyed, it risked starving. This is why the enemy baggage train was often a target for attack.

The impact of warfare on civilians

Medieval warfare had an impact on civilians in a variety of ways. The impact was mostly bad. The three main impacts were caused by the **cost** of warfare, **recruitment** for wars and the impact of **fighting** during wars.

The cost of warfare

England was almost constantly at war between 1250 and 1500 – and wars were expensive. Kings had to build castles, pay troops, and pay for their weapons and supplies. The ways in which kings raised the money and supplies they needed had a bad impact on civilians in the following ways.

Increased taxation

Kings constantly raised taxes during this period (see the table below). The tax burden on the population almost doubled between 1337 and 1422. Paying extra taxes caused citizens hardship.

This is in part shown by the Peasants' Revolt in 1381 – one reason for the revolt was unrest about taxes. However, the burden of taxation should not be exaggerated; even at the end of the Hundred Years' War, tax was only about 1% of annual income for most people.

King	Tax collected per year	Modern value
Edward III (1337–77)	£75,000	£32 million
Richard II (1377–99)	£100,000	£45 million
Henry V (1413–22)	£125,000	£60 million

Purveyance

One way kings paid for the cost of wars was purveyance – requisitioning food and supplies. When the Crown requisitioned food, it was supposed to pay a fair price. It often didn't. It rarely paid in cash, but usually in wooden 'tallies' – a kind of IOU. Paying off the tallies took months or years. Giving away their goods and not getting paid for ages must have caused civilians great hardship. A popular poem of 1340 indicates that it was a cause of resentment. It said: 'You who eat off silver and pay in wood, how much better to pay in silver and eat off wood'.

Seizing ships

As well as food, kings also requisitioned goods, such as ships for transport. To send armies and supplies to campaign in France required many ships. In 1346, for the Crècy campaign, the Crown had no ships of its own, so 700 private ships were seized instead.

Recruitment

Another way in which warfare affected citizens was recruitment. People were compelled to fight. The feudal summons to fight for the king and the Assize of Arms were both ways of forcing people to join armies. It is clear that, during the period 1250 to 1500, civilians did not like being forced to fight:

- An increasing number chose to pay money – scutage – instead of going to war themselves.
- Some civilians who answered the call to arms deserted at the first opportunity. For example, in 1300, of 9,000 troops who mustered with the army in Scotland, only 5,000 remained after one month.
- Some civilians just refused to serve. In 1355, when archers from Gloucester were told to join the king's army in Scotland, they just refused.

The impact of fighting

Medieval strategy and tactics also meant that civilians suffered **during** wars. Sometimes, instead of fighting the enemy's army, attacking forces attacked civilians instead (see Interpretation 1).

Interpretation 1

Description of raids on enemy land from *The Cambridge History of Warfare*, edited by Geoffrey Parker (2005).

> The aim was to weaken the enemy's morale and ability to pay taxes, and to break his resolve. [The] prime targets were population, economy and social infrastructure rather than armies.

Raids

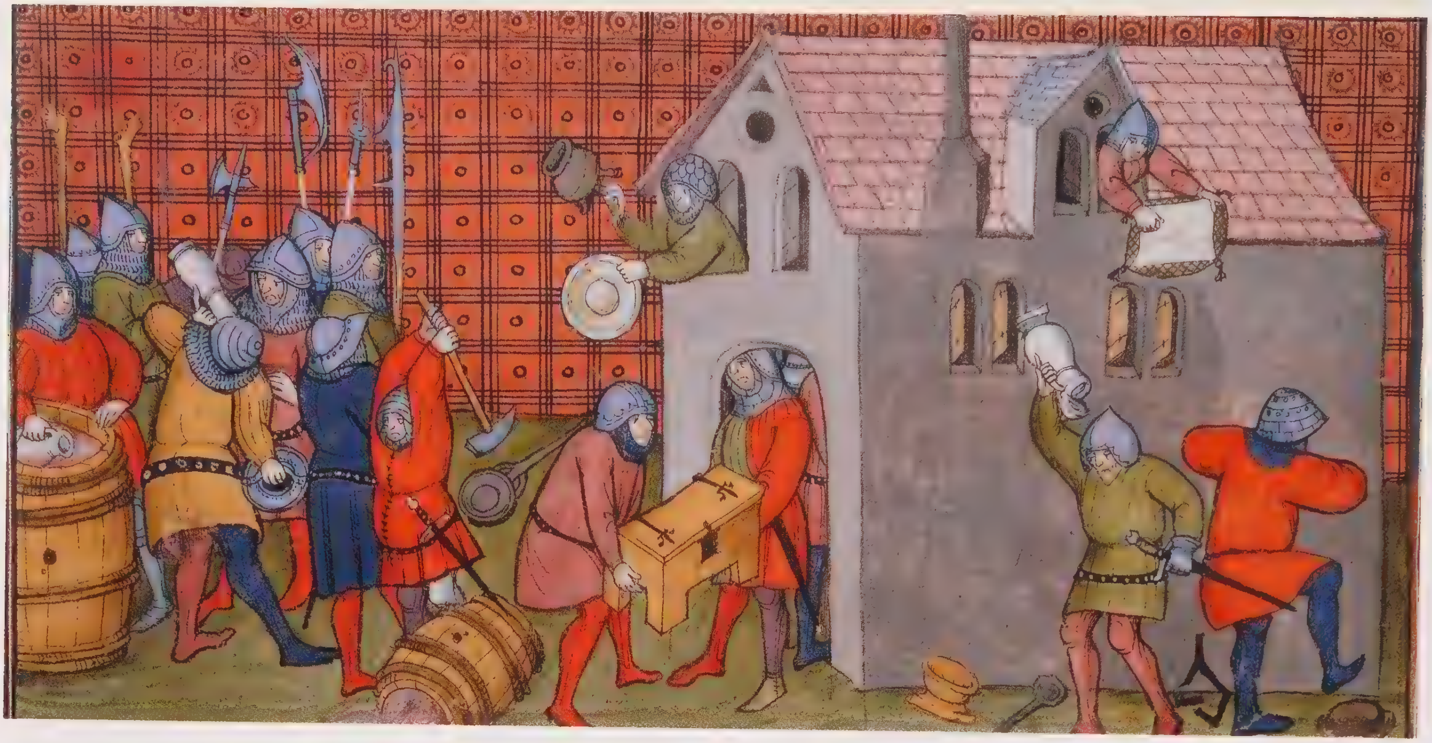
Sometimes armies raided towns and villages in enemy territory. This caused suffering and panic amongst the civilian population. It also made the enemy's leaders and their army look weak. In 1296, a Scottish army raided the north of England. Contemporary sources say they killed 'infirm people, old people and women in child-bed' and, in Corbridge: '200 scholars were in a school; having blocked up the doors, (the Scots) set fire to the building'. Sometimes this tactic caused enough suffering amongst civilians that the invading army were paid or given land to go away.

Plunder and destruction of property

Armies often stole supplies from the land in enemy territory (see Source D). This had two benefits for the attackers. It gave them an extra source of food and it deprived their enemy of food. But it also deprived civilians of food, which could lead to starvation.

Source D

From a medieval French history book showing infantry looting a house in France in about 1375.



Ransoms

Sometimes, on campaign, an army might not attack a town. Instead, they would camp nearby and demand money from the town in exchange for a promise not to attack. Soldiers occasionally kidnapped civilians and held them to ransom (money demanded for the return of prisoners). For example, in 1380, 168 civilians were seized in a French town, Bergerac, and forced to pay for their freedom. Fear of being taken captive during warfare must have caused terror amongst civilians.

Sieges of towns and castles

Besieging castles and fortified towns was a key strategy in warfare at this time. This involved cutting off food and water supplies, and attacking with siege weapons or cannon. This caused great suffering to civilians inside. For example, when Henry V besieged the French town of Rouen in 1418–19, he chose to starve the town into surrender. Contemporary chroniclers claimed that, by the time the town surrendered, townspeople were dying faster than carts could carry them off for burial. Their estimates of the dead range from 10,000 to 50,000. And it was said, that when the surviving citizens of the town emerged, at the end of the siege, they looked, not like living people, but more like the dead.

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain why civilians suffered during warfare, 1250–1500.

You may use the following in your answer:

- the Assize of Arms
- purveyance.

You **must** also use information of your own. **12 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests understanding of features of the time and causation. Your answer should:

- include your **own information** to add to the points in the question
- focus constantly on the **reasons** for suffering
- give **evidence** or **examples** for all the reasons it gives.

A very good answer will give an **analysis** of the reasons. For example, it might point out that suffering was caused by a **combination** of reasons working together.

The benefits of warfare?

As we have seen, sieges, raids, plunder and ransom were normal parts of warfare at this time. This inevitably meant that the impact of wars on civilians was mostly bad. However, there were some benefits.

- Civilians who joined the army could benefit from good wages. In 1350, during the Hundred Years' War, a labourer in England earned about 2d per day. A master craftsman earned 4d per day. But a mounted archer earned 6d. Soldiers might also be able to share ransom money and booty (valuable goods, stolen from the enemy). So, fighting offered a good income for some civilians.
- Other civilians made goods needed in wars, such as fortifications, weapons, armour, carts and soldiers' clothes. The Hundred Years' War was a time of prosperity in England's construction, weapons and textiles industries. Citizens benefitted from good, secure wages in these industries.

These benefits did not outweigh the suffering that wars caused to civilians, but they should be noted in the overall impact of warfare.

Activity ?

In groups, role-play a king and his barons planning a campaign in France in 1450. Decide:

a What you need to fight the war.

b How you should get the things you need.

Write up the minutes of your meeting.

Summary

- Feudal service, Assize of Arms, and payment, continued as the ways of recruiting troops.
- The relative importance of these three methods changed during the period 1250–1500.
- Training of troops changed for the better, but remained quite poor despite improvements.
- Because there was so much warfare, provisioning methods had to change.
- Changes in purveyance of food and stores of weapons made armies better supplied.
- Weaknesses in supplies meant that armies continued to go short and resort to plunder.
- Civilians suffered from the impact of the cost of war, recruitment methods and fighting.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give details of feudal service, arrays of arms and payment of troops in this period.

S2 Describe how the importance of these recruitment methods changed over time.

S3 Describe, in detail, how troops were trained and provisioned.

S4 Describe the impact on civilians of the cost of wars, recruitment and fighting.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, look up answers on pages 27–32 and record the answers for future reference.

Challenge

C1 Explain how the decline of the feudal system caused recruitment to change.

C2 Explain how **a combination of factors** caused recruitment to change.

C3 Explain why training and provisioning of troops changed.

C4 Explain why war had an impact on civilians, 1250–1500.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

1.3 The Battle of Falkirk, 1298

Learning outcomes

- Understand the reasons for the outcome of the Battle of Falkirk.
- Understand the roles of William Wallace and Edward I in the battle.

The Scottish uprising, 1297

In 1297, Scotland was under the control of the English king, Edward I. But the Scots resented English control and an uprising began. By August, the Scottish leader, William Wallace, had summoned an army of 6,000 men and threatened the key strategic castle at Stirling.

Edward I was on campaign in France. The Earl of Surrey raised an army, also 6,000 strong, and confronted the Scots at the Battle of Stirling Bridge. Wallace's infantry, using pikes and organised in schiltrons, inflicted a crushing defeat on the English (see page 19).

Wallace didn't stop there. He led 3,000 men in a raid on northern England. Edward I was now faced with a full-blown revolt in Scotland.

January–April 1298, Early problems

Royal writs (commands) were issued summoning troops to Scotland using feudal service and the Assize of Arms.

By February, 21,000 troops had gathered, commanded by the Earl of Surrey. This was an unusually large number. It shows that, in 1298, the traditional medieval methods of recruitment for English armies, though in decline, could still raise a large army.

However, winter campaigning was not usual, or popular, and feudal armies were only used to short periods of campaigning. As time went by, and the season for spring sowing in the fields approached, men began to drift back to their homes. By March, only 10,000 remained, and by April, it was 5,000. This is a good example of the problems kings faced when trying to fight wars with feudal troops.

This force recaptured the castles of Roxburgh and Berwick.

But, Edward ordered that the full campaign against Wallace's army should not start before he arrived. During the delay, even more troops left for home, until only 1,500 remained.

May–July 1298, Edward marches north

Edward's march north was typical of the period.

- His route hugged the east coast, so that he could be supplied with food by sea.
- Along the way, he paused to capture Scottish castles, at Dalhousie, Dirleton and Tantalion. This illustrates the importance of having castles as secure bases.
- The Scottish countryside was a wasteland. Wallace's men had destroyed any crops useful to Edward. The English added to the suffering and destruction, burning houses to punish the local population.
- Edward's baggage train ran short of supplies and bad weather stopped his supply ships landing. His men's only food was peas and beans from the fields. Edward eventually found food at the priory at Coldstream, where his men consumed 600 sheep. In the end Edward's good planning secured his food supply, as supplies arrived by sea, but his campaign had almost collapsed due to a shortage of food.

22 July 1298, The armies assemble

By July 1298, both armies were manoeuvring for position near Falkirk. Wallace chose to use his army to block Edward's route to the vital castle at Stirling.

In the early hours of 22 July, apparently by accident, the two armies spotted each other, about 1.5 km apart. Even though attack had proved disastrous to English forces the year before, Edward took the bold decision to commit his forces to an all-out attack.

Wallace chose a position on hard ground on the side of a hill, with a marsh in front of him and his rear protected by woods. But his flanks had no protection. His infantry formed four schiltrons. The schiltrons were flanked by archers to provide protection against attack. His cavalry were formed up behind the right flank, protected by the schiltrons and archers, but in a position to strike at English cavalry and infantry (see Figure 1.5 for details).

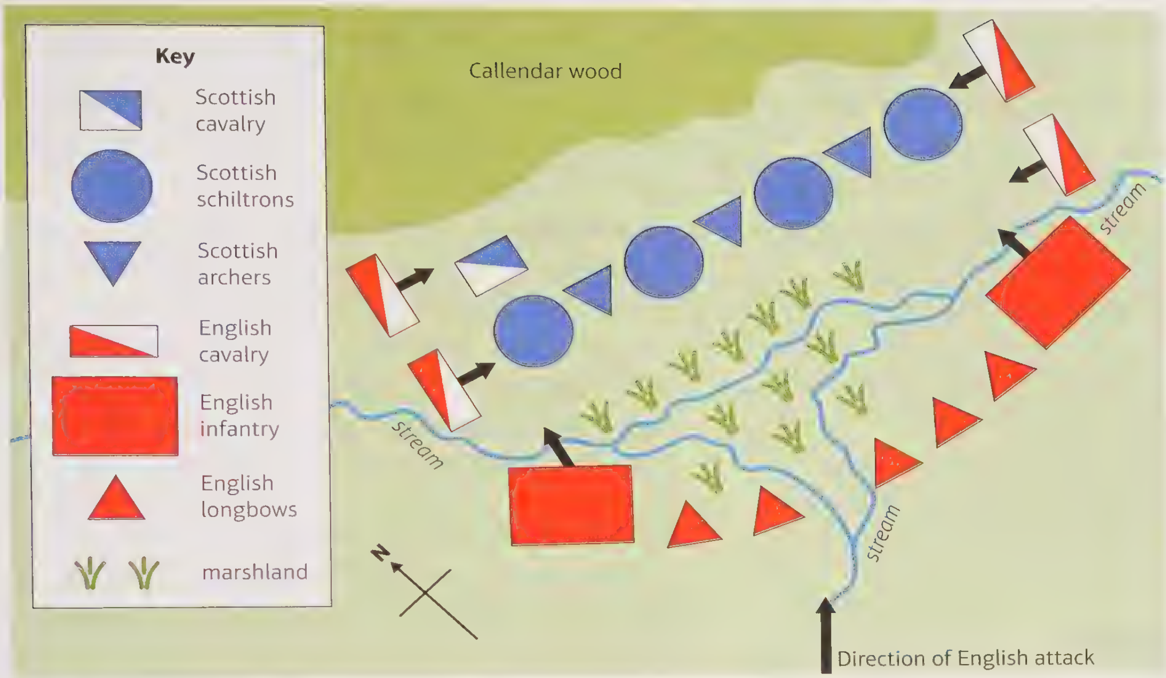


Figure 1.5 A plan of the Battle of Falkirk, 1298.

The English army

At the time of the battle, Edward's army probably consisted of:

- 2,000 cavalry
- 12,000 infantry, including 5,000 longbow archers and 500 crossbowmen.

Half the cavalry were feudal troops. The other half were raised by Assize of Arms, with a minority of paid troops.

The Scottish army

William Wallace's army probably consisted of:

- 500 cavalry
- 9,500 infantry, including 1,500 archers.

Wallace summoned his army using a system like the English Assize of Arms. Each area of Scotland had to send men from all classes. As in England, this was not always popular; Wallace erected gallows near his camp as a warning to potential deserters. One persistent problem that Wallace had with his army was that he was not a member of the nobility. Scottish nobles resented taking orders from him. They supported him when things were going well; but any sign of problems and some were quick to desert him.

22 July 1298, The battle begins

As was usual, Edward consulted his earls in a council of war; he decided to launch a cavalry attack.

At first, the **marsh** in front of the Scots slowed the attack. But, eventually, the English cavalry found ways around the marsh and confronted the Scottish flanks.

An order was sent not to engage in combat before the king's cavalry group arrived. However, some of the feudal knights were too **undisciplined** to take orders.

In some disorder, an uncoordinated cavalry attack began. Fortunately for the English, it achieved two important successes. **First**, they forced the **Scottish cavalry** off the field. They seem to have abandoned the battlefield, showing little loyalty to Wallace. **Second**, the English cavalry charged into the gaps between the **Scottish archers** and the schiltrons. This cut off the Scottish archers, and the English cavalry was able to charge in amongst them, killing or driving off the majority.

Edward's attack then ran into problems. The English cavalry turned to attack the **schiltrons**, but they had no success whatsoever. Wallace's schiltrons were well disciplined and the English cavalry could not penetrate their solid lines of pikes.

This was the point at which the battle was decided. Edward deployed his 5,000 **longbows**.

- Clouds of arrows fell upon the Scottish infantry. Unprotected by armour, hundreds died.
- Gaps appeared in the walls of Scottish pikes and the **English cavalry** were at last able to charge into the weak spots. Soon, Wallace's troops scattered.
- Finally, the **English infantry** attacked. Any Scottish infantry who did not reach the safety of the woods were hacked to death by English infantry or chased and killed by the mounted cavalry.

Edward had won the battle. He set about capturing castles and taking a firmer grip on Scotland. Wallace escaped, but was later captured. He was taken to London, where he was executed.

The role of William Wallace

Wallace's decisions played a key part in the battle – and, therefore, in the future history of Scotland.

- Wallace's use of pike schiltrons nearly worked. Even after their cavalry protection had been driven off and their archers destroyed, they still beat off the first cavalry attack against them.
- Aspects of Wallace's choice of position – the slope, the marsh, the woods – were good.
- He failed to protect his flanks: a basic command error.
- Wallace's cavalry and his archers played no useful part in the battle. Some would say this was his fault for choosing to face the enemy with inadequate troops. However, this was the first battle where English archers showed their strength.

In the end, his choice to stand and fight cost him his life – and his country's freedom.

The role of Edward I

Edward I nearly lost this campaign.

- Despite detailed plans to supply his troops by sea, they were nearly defeated by hunger. His advanced planning was admirable – but it only just worked.
- Despite having superior forces, undisciplined cavalry could have ruined his attack. Against a stronger enemy, it could have been disastrous. Edward was lucky.
- However, by his bold decision to attack, Edward had forced Wallace to fight in a position where his flanks were undefended. In battles at this time, outmanoeuvring your enemy (moving your forces around so that you get a better position than your enemy) was a key skill for commanders.
- Edward's use of his longbows was the turning point of the battle. It became a key part of English strategy in warfare for the next 150 years.

Edward overcame difficulties and then made the most of his superior troops.

Activities ?

1 In groups of four, take it in turns to name features of the Battle of Falkirk that were typical of battles, 1250–1500. Jot down each correct idea.

2 Split the class in two: 'Scots' and 'English'. Debate: 'Why did the English win the Battle of Falkirk?' Consider: the number and composition of troops, tactics used, the role of individual commanders. At the end, record the best points made.

3 'The Battle of Falkirk was a victory of infantry over cavalry'. Decide whether you agree, then write a paragraph to explain your view.

Summary

- Features of Wallace's rebellion, Edward's campaign, and their battle at Falkirk, were typical of warfare at this time.
- The Scottish schiltrons showed that pikes could make infantry very effective against cavalry. This was part of the slow decline of cavalry as the dominant force on the battlefield.
- The English archers showed the dominance on the battlefield that they were to display for the next 150 years.

Checkpoint

Challenge

C1 Give details to justify each of the three statements made in the Summary above.

If you are not sure, go back to the text in this section to find the details you need.

1.4 The Battle of Agincourt, 1415

Learning outcomes

- Understand the reasons for the outcome of the Battle of Agincourt.
- Understand the role of Henry V in the battle.

During the Hundred Years' War, Henry V of England tried to conquer land in Northern France.

Recruitment

Henry's army was raised by paying for **indentures** (contracts), with noblemen willing to act as **captains** of bodies of troops for 12 months. For example:

- the Duke of Clarence, the king's brother, supplied 720 men-at-arms and 240 archers
- the Duke of York, the king's cousin, supplied 100 men-at-arms and 300 archers.

These were the same type of men who, 200 years earlier, would have supplied feudal troops. To reduce the cost, Henry agreed that troops capturing **booty** on the campaign could keep a third of its value, a third would be taken by the captains, and a third given to the Crown.

Henry's invasion force

The army used ships hired from Holland or **impressed** (taken, by royal order) from private owners in England.

- Henry had 12,000 troops, including 9,000 archers.
- The indentures show a ratio of 1:3 – one mounted man-at-arms to three mounted archers.

Henry's strategy

Henry's declared aim was to **capture** and **control** land in northern France. But, the composition of his army shows that he did not intend to do this by defeating the French army in battle. He had too few men-at-arms to fight offensive battles.

Instead, he planned to seize French castles and raid French settlements with his fast-moving army, destroying property and seizing booty. He then planned to negotiate with the French king for territory.

So, having landed in France in August 1415, Henry spent five weeks seizing the port of **Harfleur**. (See Source A for a typical siege). In early October, leaving troops to protect the town, Henry set out for the English stronghold at Calais, to take refuge for the winter.

Henry's march across France

Henry chose to march to Calais, rather than sail, to show the French he was not scared of them.

- The French army, led by Charles d'Albret, shadowed Henry, trying to force him into a battle.
- Dysentery – a disease known as 'the bloody flux' – had broken out amongst Henry's men in Harfleur. As Henry's march stretched into its third week, in wintry weather, his men became ill, weak and tired.
- The French doggedly kept themselves between Henry's army and his route to Calais. Eventually, they trapped the English and Henry was forced to accept battle.

Henry's army

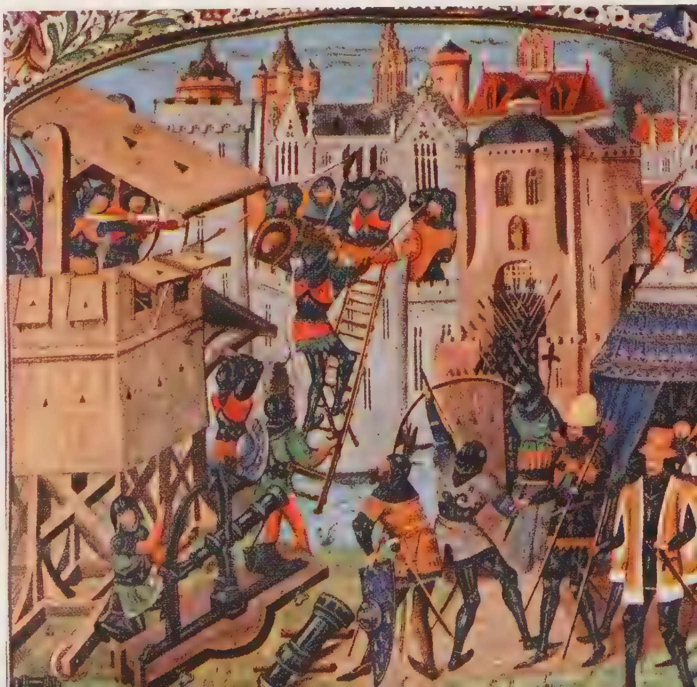
Henry probably had 8,000 troops at Agincourt: 2,000 men-at-arms and 6,000 archers.

The French army

Probably consisted of 15,000 troops: 10,000 heavily armoured cavalry and only 5,000 infantry. French archers were available, but were hardly used.

Source A

An image from a French chronicle (c1400) showing English troops besieging a town.



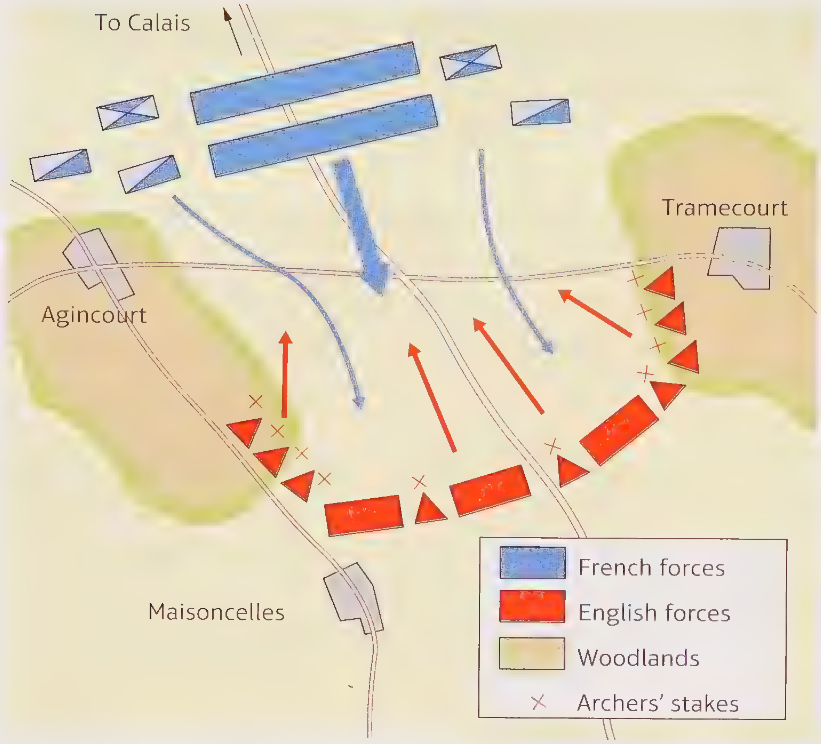


Figure 1.6 A plan of the Battle of Agincourt, 1415.

Source B

From a chronicle written by the contemporary French chronicler, the monk of St Denis. He was not actually present at the battle, but lived at the time.

Marching through the mud... they sank up to their knees. So they were already overcome with fatigue even before they advanced against the enemy... The first wave of about 5,000 men was so tightly packed that the third rank could not use their swords.

The armies take up positions

Henry did not choose the location of the battle.

- But he sent knights to survey the land the night before, then placed his army in a narrow gap, 750 metres wide, between two **woods**. There was **ploughed land** between him and the French army. It was wet, heavy clay, which Henry knew the French would find difficult to cross. The French knights made it worse, by exercising horses there, churning up the mud.
- The English men-at-arms dismounted and made a **defensive** block in the centre of the army.
- The archers were placed on the two **flanks**. Henry ordered archers to hammer angled **stakes** into the ground in front of his troops to slow the enemy cavalry attack.

Meanwhile, the French army assembled, some 1,000 metres away.

25 October 1415, Battle begins

Henry took the initiative. He sent archers into the trees to fire at the French lines. This was called **galling**; the French knights regarded it as unchivalrous. Angry, they lost their discipline and began a disorganised charge. The infantry moved up behind them.

It was at this point that the English longbows showed their value.

- Longbow archers fired in volleys into the flanks, or directly onto the heads of the French cavalry.
- The charge failed and the French cavalry retreated – directly into the approaching French infantry.
- The French infantry arrived at the battlefront, exhausted, having slogged through mud over the bodies of fallen men.
- Henry then attacked. His archers put down their bows and attacked from the flanks with swords. The English men-at-arms pressed forward. The French, crowded together and stumbling on bodies, retreated.

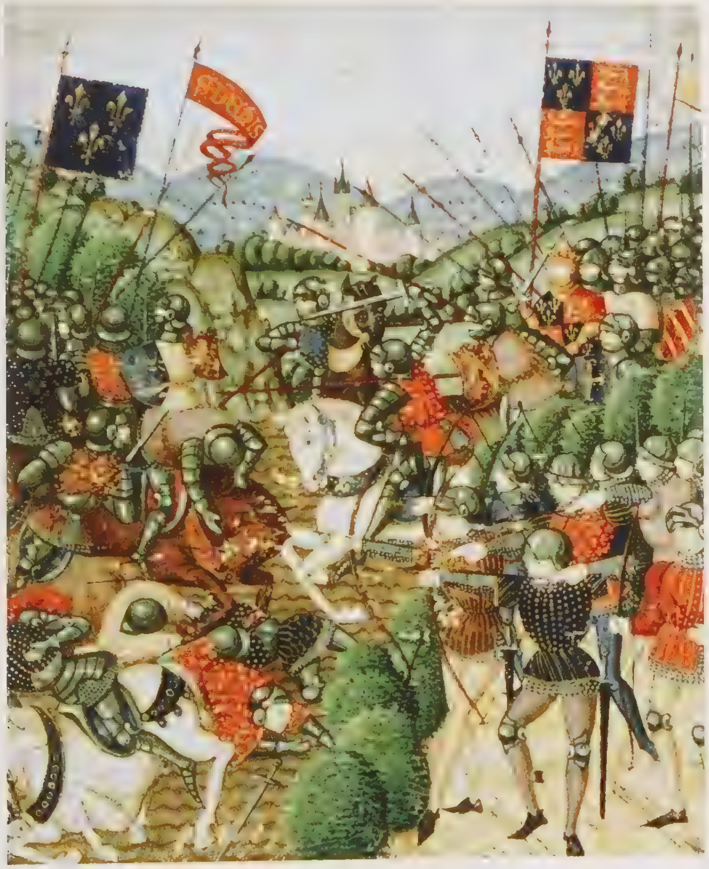
The battle had lasted only about three hours, yet it was a significant victory.

- Estimates vary, but it is thought that about 450 English died. Henry's victory saved the English army from destruction and avoided the capture or death of the English king.
- For France, it was much worse. Again, estimates vary, but it was widely thought at the time that 4,000 Frenchmen died. These included their commander, three dukes, five counts and 90 barons. This was a significant number of the French ruling class. Plus 1,500 noblemen were also taken prisoner.

- In military terms, the Battle of Agincourt became a prime example of the dominance of the **longbow**; but Henry's sieges, like the one at Harfleur, were important too. It was the control of fortified bases that gave Henry **military** and **political control** of the surrounding countryside.

Source C

A painting of the Battle of Agincourt. It is a copy, made in 1900, of a painting in a medieval manuscript. The scenery is fanciful and showing the English cavalry (on the right) charging is wrong. But the ploughed ground, weapons, protective clothing and chaos amongst French troops are correct.



Interpretation 1

Description of the French army from *The Art of War in the Middle Ages, AD378–1515*, by historian C. Oman (1885).

> [The French army] was composed of a fiery and undisciplined aristocracy that imagined itself to be the most efficient military force in the world, but was in reality little removed from an armed mob.

Reasons for the outcome

- **Positioning the armies.** Henry chose an ideal defensive position.
- **French tactics.** The French relied too much on cavalry. Their infantry and archers were weak and underused by the French commanders.
- **French indiscipline.** Their cavalry attack was badly co-ordinated with the infantry.
- **The longbow.** The English could fire up to 100,000 arrows per minute at the French attack.

The role of Henry V

In some ways, Henry was fortunate to win.

- His march across France was risky and it weakened his army.
- He was outmanoeuvred and forced to fight a battle that he wanted to avoid.

But he showed key skills as a commander by his:

- choice of a good defensive position
- placement of men-at-arms and archers
- use of longbows as the decisive force.

Henry also showed a key quality of medieval commanders – bravery, and the ability to fight on the battlefield, as an example to his men. Several of the contemporary sources describe Henry fighting side-by-side with his men-at-arms, scattering the enemy with his axe, even when his crown – worn in the battle over his helmet – was split by a blow from a French axe.

Activities

1. Draw a timeline of the Battle of Agincourt.
2. Make a table to show features of the Agincourt campaign that were typical of the time. Use, as rows in your table: 'Recruitment', 'Size and Composition of Army', 'Strategy and Tactics', 'Battle'.
3. Consider this statement: 'Henry V was the main reason the English won the Battle of Agincourt'. Half the class should write paragraphs in favour, half against. Decide which is the most persuasive. Record your decision and reasons.

THINKING HISTORICALLY Change and continuity (2a-b)

Distinguishing between change and continuity

Change is happening all the time. Every day, things change slightly in lots of different ways. For example mobile phone batteries might have become 1% more powerful. Most of these changes are not important enough to be called 'change' by historians.

The timeline on page 23 shows changes in the development of gunpowder weapons.

1 Using only three of the events, write a paragraph explaining how gunpowder weapons changed during this period. Think carefully about which events you include.

A period of 'continuity' is a period of time when very little (if anything) changes.

2 Can you identify any periods of continuity in the timeline?

3 If you identified a period of continuity, write down:
  a what it was that stayed the same
  b what, if anything changed.

4 Write your own definitions of 'change' and 'continuity'.

Events or historical change?

Change is an alteration in a situation. Events are when something happens.

Sometimes a situation can be very different before and after an event – this event **marks a change**. However, sometimes a situation is the same before and after an event; and sometimes a situation changes without a specific event taking place at all.

Study the following events and their changes:

- The Battle of Stirling Bridge (1297)
- The Hundred Years' War (1337–1453)
- The English army become more successful, especially against French knights.
- More Englishmen are forced to fight in the king's army.
- English civilians suffered from higher taxation and unfair requisitioning of goods.
- An increase in the use of pikes to defend against cavalry and even attack infantry.
- The introduction of the longbow into English armies at the Battle of Falkirk (1298)
- The Statute of Winchester (1285)

1 Sort the above into 'events' and 'changes'.

2 Match each event to the change that it marks.

3 Can you think of an historical change that has happened without there being a particular event associated with it? An example would be the decline of feudalism in the 14th century.

4 What is the difference between an event and a change?

Summary

- Several features of the Battle of Agincourt, such as the recruitment and composition of the armies, were typical of warfare at this time.
- The English victory demonstrated the key role of the longbow in warfare during this period.
- The decisions of the English and French commanders illustrate some of the key strategies and tactics of warfare during this period.

Checkpoint

Challenge

C1 Give details to justify each of the three statements made in the Summary above.

If you are not sure, go back to the text in this section to find the details you need.

Recap c1250–c1500: Warfare and English society

Draw a table showing continuity and change in Warfare c1250–c1500 based on the one below. Draw larger coloured boxes and use these to note down evidence for each of the examples of Continuity, Change, Trend / Turning Point, Factors and Consequences in the table. The evidence will be detailed information like statistics, a key battle, a new law, etc.

Change and continuity	
Continuity	
Size of armies	
Command of armies	
Limited warfare	
Importance of castles	
Importance of positioning	
Change	
Power of pikes	
Use of longbows	
Changes in armour	
Composition of armies	
New tactics	
Gunpowder weapons	
Decline of mounted knight	
Changes in recruitment	
Changes in training	
Changes in provisioning	

Patterns of change	
Trend or turning point	
Turning point Improved use of pikes and schiltrons	
Turning point Increased use of longbows	
Trend Increasing use of gunpowder weapons	
Trend Decline of the mounted knight	
Trend Decline of the feudal system	

Factors affecting warfare	
Factor affecting change	
Society	
Science	
Technology	
Individuals	
Consequence on civilians	
Increased taxation	
Requisition of food	
Requisition of goods	
Impact of recruitment	
Impact of fighting	
Benefits of recruitment	
Other benefits of warfare	

The Battle of Bosworth, 1485

Read through these features then try the activities on the right.

- The battle was fought by **small armies**. Richard III had 12,000 men; Henry Tudor 5,000.
- Both armies consisted of **infantry** and **cavalry**.
- Richard's army contained levies from shires and towns, raised by **Assize of Arms**, and **paid** troops. Henry's army, raised abroad, consisted entirely of paid **mercenaries**.
- In the early stages, Richard's army was weakened by **arrows** from Henry's archers.
- Richard **positioned** himself on a hill; this weakened the impact of Henry's cavalry.
- Richard's army contained a number of **cannon** – sources suggest as many as 140.
- Richard's key tactic was a **cavalry charge**, intended to capture Henry.
- Richard was eventually killed, probably by halberds and swords, in **hand-to-hand** combat.
- Many of Richard's army were killed as they **fled**, chased by Henry's cavalry.

Activities ?

1 This section has covered the period 1250–1500.

- The Battle of Falkirk (1298) illustrates warfare in about 1250.
- For comparison, listed left are the features of the Battle of Bosworth (1485), which illustrate the key features of warfare in 1500. Add the Battle of Bosworth to the table that you started on page 25.

Then read the features of the Battle of Bosworth and decide whether each feature represents an example of change or continuity.

2 In a group, think about this interpretation from a modern military historian: 'This was a period of change caused, not merely by technical factors, but also by social, political and economic realities'. Using the features of the Battle of Bosworth to prompt you, write a list of changes in warfare, 1250–1500, that are evidence to support this interpretation.

Writing historically: a clear response

Every response you write needs to be clearly written. To help you achieve this, you need to signal clearly that your response is relevant to the question you are answering.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you will understand how to:

- use key noun phrases from the question to make sure you are answering it
- use the subject-verb construction to express clearly an idea or opinion.

Definitions

Noun: a word that names an object, idea, person, place, etc, e.g. 'William', 'king', 'castle'.

Noun phrase: a phrase including a noun and any words that modify its meaning, e.g. 'the king of England', 'a motte and bailey castle'.

Verb: words that describe actions ('William conquered England'), incidents ('The battle ended') and situations ('William was king for 21 years').

How can I make sure I am answering the question?

Look at this exam-style question in which key noun phrases and verbs are highlighted:

> Explain why English civilians suffered during warfare, 1250–1500.
>
> (12 marks)

Now look at the first two sentences from two different responses to this question below.

Answer A

> *Although England itself was largely free of warfare 1250-1500, English civilians still suffered. One reason was the increasing cost.*

Answer B

> *The cost of warfare was increasing. This was felt through increasing taxation.*

1. a. Which answer signals most clearly that their response is going to answer the question?
   b. Write a sentence or two explaining your choice.

2. Now look at this exam-style question:

> Explain **one** way in which recruitment to the English army was different by c1500 than it had been in c1250. (4 marks)

   a. Which are the key noun phrases and verbs in this question? Note them down.
   b. Write the first two sentences of your response to this question.
   c. Look again at the first two sentences of your response. Highlight all the key noun phrases and verbs, from the question, that you have included in your sentences. Have you used them all? If not, try rewriting your sentences, including them all, to signal clearly that your response is answering the question.

How can I clearly express my ideas?

One way to introduce your opinions and ideas, clearly and briefly, is by using a short statement sentence beginning with a **subject-verb** construction.

> *The cost of warfare was increasing rapidly. The tax burden was to double between 1337 and 1422.*

This is the main verb in this sentence. It tells you what English armies did.

This noun is the subject of the main verb. It tells you it was English armies that did it.

This is the main verb in this sentence. It tells you about the situation.

This noun is the subject of the main verb. It tells you who or what the verb refers to.

3. Look again at Answer A's opening sentences:

> *Although England itself was largely free of warfare 1250-1500, English civilians still suffered. One reason was the increasing cost.*

This short statement sentence expresses the writer's approach to the question clearly and briefly.

This is the main verb in this sentence. This noun phrase is the subject of the sentence.

The writer could have written:

> *One reason why English civilians still suffered during warfare 1250-1500 was the increasing cost, even though England itself was largely free from fighting.*

Or

> *The increasing cost of warfare 1250-1500 caused English civilians to suffer, even though England itself was largely free from fighting.*

Which version do you prefer? Write a sentence or two explaining your choice.

4. a. Try rewriting the same information using different sentence structures to all the versions above.

b. Is your version clearer or more succinct than Answer A's sentences?

Improving an answer

Look at this exam question:

> Explain one way in which recruitment to the English army was different by c1500 than it had been in c1250. **(4 marks)**

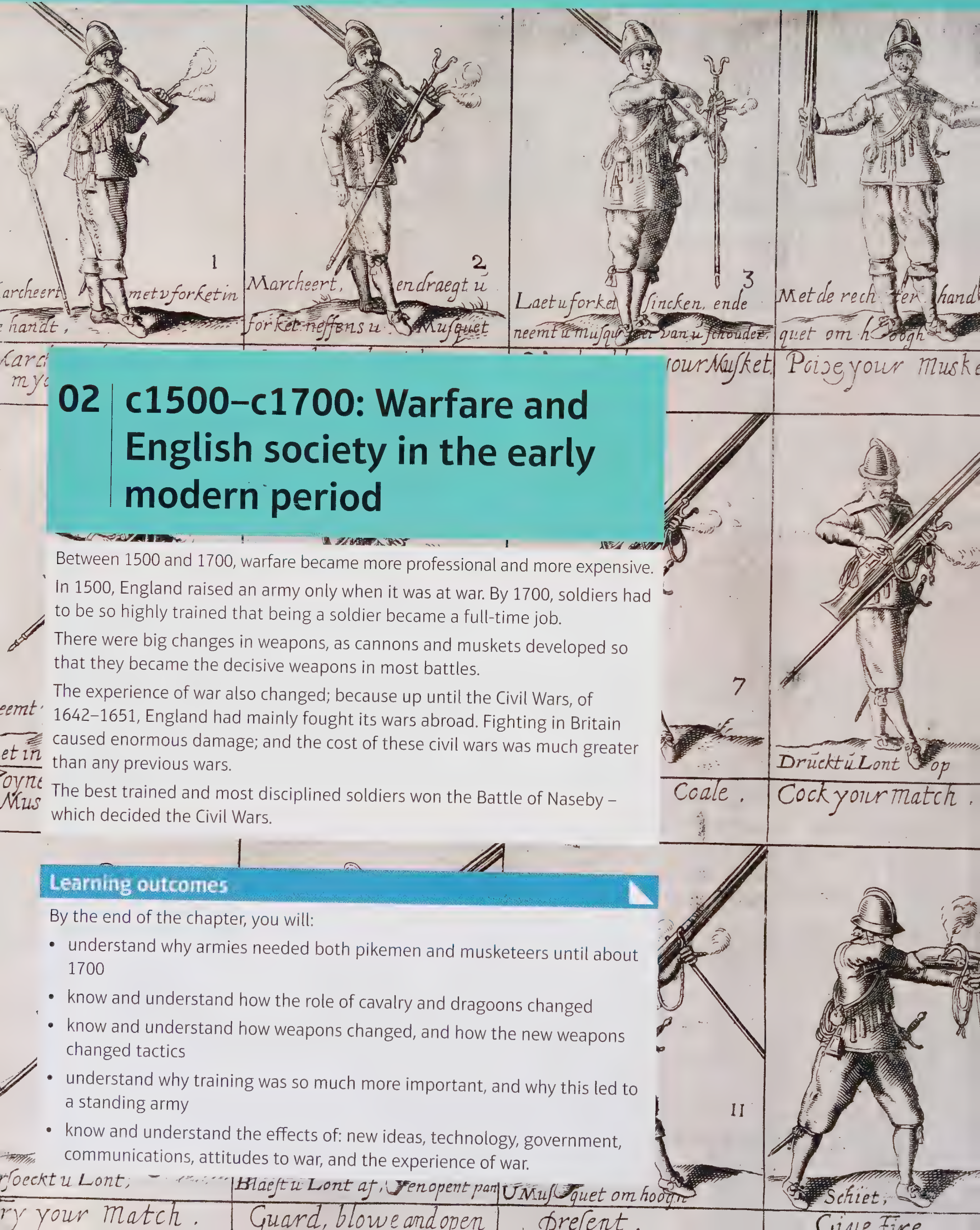
Now look at one response to it:

> *In 1250, the main method was through the system of feudalism but that ended in 1327. This was different because the Assize of Arms and payment of mercenaries then became dominant instead, as the changes in society meant that feudal dues were no longer a reliable method for providing sufficient men and there were too many limitations.*

5. Rewrite the response so that:

a. the opening sentences focus on key words and phrases from the question

b. it includes a short statement sentence, beginning with a subject-verb construction, to introduce the writer's approach to the question clearly.


archeert met u forket in handt,
1
Marcheert, endraegt u forket neffens u Musquet
2
Laet u forket sincken, ende neemt u musquet van u schouder.
3
Met de rech ter hand quet om hoogh
our Musket
Poise your muske
7
Coale .
Druckt u Lont op
Cock your match .
11
foeckt u Lont;
ry your match .
Blaest u Lont af, en opent pan
Guard, blowe and open
U Musquet om hoogh
Present
Schiet,
Give Fire

02 c1500–c1700: Warfare and English society in the early modern period

Between 1500 and 1700, warfare became more professional and more expensive. In 1500, England raised an army only when it was at war. By 1700, soldiers had to be so highly trained that being a soldier became a full-time job.

There were big changes in weapons, as cannons and muskets developed so that they became the decisive weapons in most battles.

The experience of war also changed; because up until the Civil Wars, of 1642–1651, England had mainly fought its wars abroad. Fighting in Britain caused enormous damage; and the cost of these civil wars was much greater than any previous wars.

The best trained and most disciplined soldiers won the Battle of Naseby – which decided the Civil Wars.

Learning outcomes

By the end of the chapter, you will:

- understand why armies needed both pikemen and musketeers until about 1700
- know and understand how the role of cavalry and dragoons changed
- know and understand how weapons changed, and how the new weapons changed tactics
- understand why training was so much more important, and why this led to a standing army
- know and understand the effects of: new ideas, technology, government, communications, attitudes to war, and the experience of war.

2.1 The nature of warfare, 1500–1700

Learning outcomes

- Understand the changing composition of armies and the rise of musketeers and pikemen.
- Understand the changing role of cavalry and the development of the dragoon.
- Understand the developments in artillery and muskets, and the impact of the bayonet.

Change and continuity

The size of armies

For the first 150 years of this period, army sizes did not change much (see Figure 2.1). But things changed in the last 50 years of the period, when armies got bigger. Of course, not all of an army would be fighting at any one battle. Garrisons of towns, forts and castles could use up to 75% of the available soldiers; so the 130,000 fighting at the battle of Landen, for example, were just 25% of the troops fighting the war.

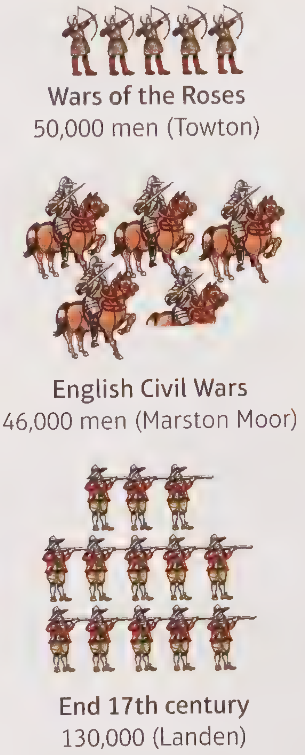


Figure 2.1 The changing size of armies, 1500–1700.

The composition of armies

Throughout this period, armies were a mix of cavalry, infantry and artillery, supported by pioneers (labourers and engineers) and baggage trains.

The ratio of cavalry and infantry in armies changed all the time, but with no pattern. Most generals wanted about 2:1 infantry to cavalry, but this did not always happen. Generals preferred more infantry if they were likely to fight sieges rather than battles, but they could not always choose the balance between infantry and cavalry. Early in the Civil Wars (July 1643) Parliament's general, the Earl of Essex, complained that he could not get enough horses or saddles, so had insufficient cavalry. However, later in the Civil Wars, Royalist armies could be half cavalry, as they could not replace quickly enough the infantry who were killed, injured, captured or deserted.

Artillery

The importance of artillery **did** change in this period. In 1500 it was very important in sieges, but less so in battles (see Source A). The very large cannon used in sieges were hard to move on poor roads. Gradually, **field artillery** (the sort used in battles) got smaller and lighter. It kept up with an army on the march better. By the 1630s, the armies in Europe, in which some British soldiers fought, had up to 90 cannon, and cannon could be decisive in battle (see Source B). When the British soldiers returned home for the First Civil War (1642–46), they could not immediately use artillery in the new way – because there were not enough modern guns, or enough trained gunners, and the roads were so bad that the artillery could not always keep up with the army. Things changed during the Civil War (see Figure 2.2) and the increase in the size of artillery trains continued until the end of the century. In 1692, England sent 120 extra cannon to the campaign in the Netherlands.

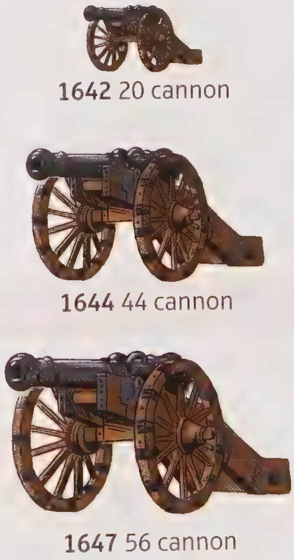


Figure 2.2 Changing number of cannon in main armies during the Civil War.

Source A

From a book written in 1593, by an English soldier who served in Elizabeth I's army fighting in the Netherlands in the 1580s. 'Ordnance' is another word for artillery or cannon.

> *Never was victory obtained by great ordnance in open field, nor the force of the enemy coming resolutely to the charge thereby stopped.*

Source B

From a book written in 1637, by a Scottish soldier who fought in the Thirty Years' War, including the Battle of Lech (1632), describing that battle.

> *Here we see the great force of artillery, for this victory was obtained by the force of our cannon alone.*

Extend your knowledge

The Battle of Bicocca, 1522

The key to the battle was an attack by two columns of Swiss pikemen on the centre of the Spanish army. They were slowed by the ground and then beaten back by the fire of the Spanish musketeers. News of the battle soon reached England – an account in Henry VIII's royal papers from 1522 still survives.

Key term

Back and breast*

Two pieces of armour: one covering the shoulders, chest and stomach in front; and one covering the back behind.

Activities ?

1. Describe the equipment of a 16th-century pikeman.
2. List what you know about the size of armies, 1500–1650.
3. List what you know about the size of armies, 1650–1700.
4. Explain whether the size of armies, 1500–1650, shows change or continuity. Do the same for the whole period 1500–1700.
5. Think about why your answer to questions 3 and 4 is different. What does this tell you about change?
6. Draw up a table with two columns, headed 'Change' and 'Evidence'. Copy each of the statements below into the 'Change' column, and then find the best evidence to support each statement and fill in the 'Evidence' column.
   - **a** Armies did not get much bigger, 1500–1650.
   - **b** Armies did get bigger, 1650–1700.
   - **c** The proportion of cavalry to infantry did not change much, 1500–1700.
   - **d** The importance of artillery grew, 1600–1700.

The impact of changes in weapons

From billmen to pikemen

Despite the success of the Scots at Falkirk, English troops made little use of pikes in the 14th and 15th centuries – although foreign mercenary pikemen were sometimes hired. But, after 1500, this began to change. Copying the Swiss, the English government wanted to replace billmen with **armoured** pikemen – with metal helmets, back and breast*, and armour covering the thighs – in contrast to the lightly armoured Scottish schiltrons 200 years before. The pike itself was about 4.5 metres long, and pikemen needed discipline and training to be successful. The change didn't happen all at once: in the 1590s, the government felt it still had too many soldiers armed with bills, not pikes.

Why change? The key factor was new ideas, brought about by the knowledge of what was happening in wars in Europe. From about 1470 onwards, Swiss pike units were unbeatable. They fought in very large units, sometimes thousands of men, packed close together in vast squares or columns. They were like a giant hedgehog, with three rows of pike points sticking out before the first men. They were also well trained, able to move around the battlefield without getting disorganised, and they could attack quickly. The evidence was that mass pike units would *always* beat the older style infantry. So, slowly, the change was made.

By the 1520s, it was clear that the mass units of pikemen were vulnerable to musket fire; so infantry units became a combination of pikemen and **musketeers**. Extra training was needed to make sure that the two types of soldiers acted effectively together.

From longbows to muskets

Firearms had been developed during the 1400s, though they were not significant in English armies at that time. By about 1550, however, the arquebus was replaced by the matchlock* musket and these started to become important in English armies.

Matchlock muskets were so heavy that the musketeer needed a rest to hold up the end of the gun (see page 56). They were slow to load – firing once every two minutes – and their effective range was about 100 metres. The English armies had won battles with the longbow; its range was about the same as a musket and it could fire faster – perhaps 12 shots, while a musketeer shot twice. So, why did the English drop the longbow for the musket?

There were several important reasons: see Figure 2.3.

Changes in society

Two trends in society particularly affected archery practice.

- **Changes in farming methods** – Tudor enclosures turned open farming land (which gave work to many labourers) into enclosed fields with much more land given over to grazing sheep. This both reduced the number of strong men available as archers (shepherds were seen by contemporaries as weaker men, less likely to be good archers) and also the space in which they could practise.
- **The growth of towns** – this meant fewer men worked in farming, where it was easier to practise archery.
- **Inflation** – prices rose faster than wages for much of the century, which meant men had to work more to earn enough to live on, so had less time to practise archery.

Key terms

Matchlock*

A type of musket, using a slow match (a cord that burns slowly) to set off the gunpowder. Loose gunpowder was poured into the pan and the trigger pulled the match into the pan. It did not usually work in the rain. Look up 'firing a matchlock musket' on the internet, to see video demonstrations.

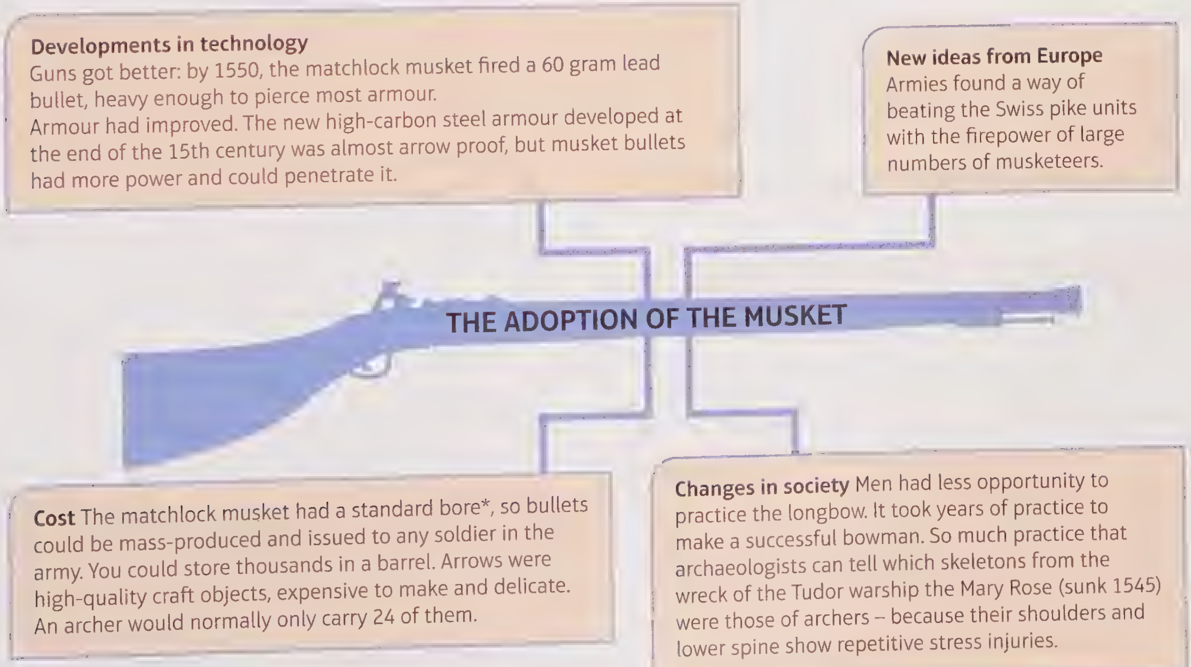
Bore*

Used both as the name of the hole in a gun barrel, and for the diameter of the hole.

Extend your knowledge

A question of power

Historians estimate that an arrow from a longbow had a force of 150 joules, but a bullet from a matchlock musket had a force of 2,700 joules – that's almost 20 times the power!



Developments in technology
Guns got better: by 1550, the matchlock musket fired a 60 gram lead bullet, heavy enough to pierce most armour.
Armour had improved. The new high-carbon steel armour developed at the end of the 15th century was almost arrow proof, but musket bullets had more power and could penetrate it.

New ideas from Europe
Armies found a way of beating the Swiss pike units with the firepower of large numbers of musketeers.

Cost The matchlock musket had a standard bore*, so bullets could be mass-produced and issued to any soldier in the army. You could store thousands in a barrel. Arrows were high-quality craft objects, expensive to make and delicate. An archer would normally only carry 24 of them.

Changes in society Men had less opportunity to practise the longbow. It took years of practice to make a successful bowman. So much practice that archaeologists can tell which skeletons from the wreck of the Tudor warship the Mary Rose (sunk 1545) were those of archers – because their shoulders and lower spine show repetitive stress injuries.

Figure 2.3 Factors leading to the adoption of the musket.

When did the change from longbows to muskets take place?

There was not a single moment when English armies changed from using bows to muskets. Look at the timeline, and think whether the switch from bows to muskets was an example of a **trend** or a **turning point**.

Activities

1. Copy out the statements below. For each statement, explain what factors affected this change and then give the best evidence you can for the change.
   - **a** Pikemen became more heavily armoured and better trained.
   - **b** Pikemen and musketeers worked together in combined units.
   - **c** Muskets replaced longbows as the main English missile weapon.
2. Was the change from longbows to muskets an example of a trend or a turning point? Give reasons for your answer.

Timeline

From longbows to muskets

1519 First recorded fatal accident during arquebus practice

1520s–40s Coastal towns (in most danger from invasion) start to arm their soldiers with guns

1547 Government has 7,000 muskets at the Tower of London

1548 English force, sent to attack Scotland, uses units with a mixture of archers and musketeers

1556 Before 1556, more people killed in accidents with bows each year; and after 1556 more people killed in accidents with guns

1558 York builds a new city armoury with no space for muskets

1560s York regularly sends troops with muskets for service in armies

1595 Government orders no more archers will be trained

THINKING HISTORICALLY

Cause and consequence (2a)

The web of multiple causes

Study these causes which historians use to explain why the matchlock musket became the dominant missile weapon, 1550–1650.

Changes in society meant fewer men practised archery.	News from Europe of musketeers defeating Swiss pikemen.	16th-century armour was strong enough to stop arrows, but not musket bullets.
The noise and terrible wounds bullets made often weakened enemy soldiers' morale in a battle.	The development of the standard bore musket meant it was easier to keep musketeers supplied with ammunition.	It took years of practice to train an archer, but just a couple of weeks to train a man to use a musket.

Working in pairs, take an A3 sheet of paper. You will need to use all of this.

1. Write two of the causes on the paper with some space between them.
2. Think of anything that connects the causes, draw a line between them, and describe the connection by writing along the line.
3. Add all the other causes in turn and make as many links as you can with other causes.
4. Now add the outcome to the diagram: 'The dominance of the matchlock musket'. Think carefully about where to place this and how it should be linked into the diagram of causes.
5. Answer the following:
   - **a** Explain why it would be difficult to put the above causes on a timeline.
   - **b** Which of the causes have an effect on other causes? Which are linked directly to the outcome?
   - **c** Can your diagram help you to work out which causes were more important?
   - **d** Write a paragraph explaining why the matchlock musket became the dominant missile weapon. Make sure you mention all the causes in the table. Use the links you have identified between the causes to help you.

Pistols for the cavalry

The pistol was developed in the 1540s as a cavalry missile weapon. The arquebus and the musket were too cumbersome to use on horseback; and riders couldn't have lengths of lighted match dangling on their horses. The pistol was a very short gun, 30–60 cm long, which could be fired from one hand. It was fired by a **wheel-lock**, a clockwork mechanism that struck a spark to light the gunpowder. However, it was less powerful than a musket and had a shorter range.

Cavalry armed with pistols and swords replaced heavily armoured cavalry with lances and swords. Armour was gradually abandoned. By the 1640s, few wore more than a 'back and breast' and a helmet; and by 1700, most had no armour at all. The use of cavalry changed during the period. From the 1540s onwards, cavalry were trained to ride close to the enemy; fire their pistols in complicated manoeuvres so that each rank fired when it got to the front; and then ride back out of range to reload. Armies rarely used the shock value of the charge and hand-to-hand fighting. Then, in the 1620s and 1630s, the Swedish army (which had both English and Scottish regiments) won several battles partly because it went back to using cavalry as shock troops. The English and Scots soldiers brought this 'new' idea back with them to use in the Civil Wars.

Dragoons

Dragoons were mounted infantry. They had arquebuses (and later, small muskets), cheap horses, no armour, and they dismounted to fight on foot. The idea of mounted infantry who fought on foot was not new – some English archers had horses in the Hundred Years' War – but when the French introduced mounted **arquebusiers** in 1554, it was thought of as a new idea, and they got a new name. They were usually used to skirmish in front of the army, and to attack the enemy's flank during battle. Armies in the mid-17th century had a lot of dragoons, but by 1700 they had all been converted into normal cavalry – but the regiments usually kept the name dragoon.

Activities ?

1 Describe how cavalry equipment changed, 1500 to 1700.

2 Explain how the way cavalry fought changed.

Artillery and fortifications

The power of cannon changed late medieval warfare. Since the 1450s, cannon had been able to smash down the walls of castles and towns, and attackers had the advantage in sieges. In the early 1500s, Italian military engineers worked out how to make walls that cannon could not smash, and also how to use cannon for defence. Defenders were now stronger than attackers again, and sieges usually took months. To make themselves safe, most states invested huge amounts of money in protecting forts and towns with the new style defences. From the 1530s onwards, England started building new fortifications in the continental manner. The key to the new style was:

- **thick, low walls, filled with earth** – cannon balls would often miss them and, when they did hit, the walls didn't shatter like the old high, thin stone medieval walls, the balls just sank into them
- **bastions***, which gave the defenders flanking fire* positions for their cannon, creating a killing ground just where attackers would need to be
- the walls and the bastions were **angled** wherever possible, so the enemy's cannon balls would bounce off with a glancing blow.

In English history, the best examples were:

- the 1530–50 defences of Boulogne and Calais (which were English towns at the time)
- the new defences of 1558–70 at Berwick, on the Scottish border
- the 1597–98 defences at Carisbrooke Castle, on the Isle of Wight (the danger was that French or Spanish invaders might try to capture the island as a base for invading the rest of England).

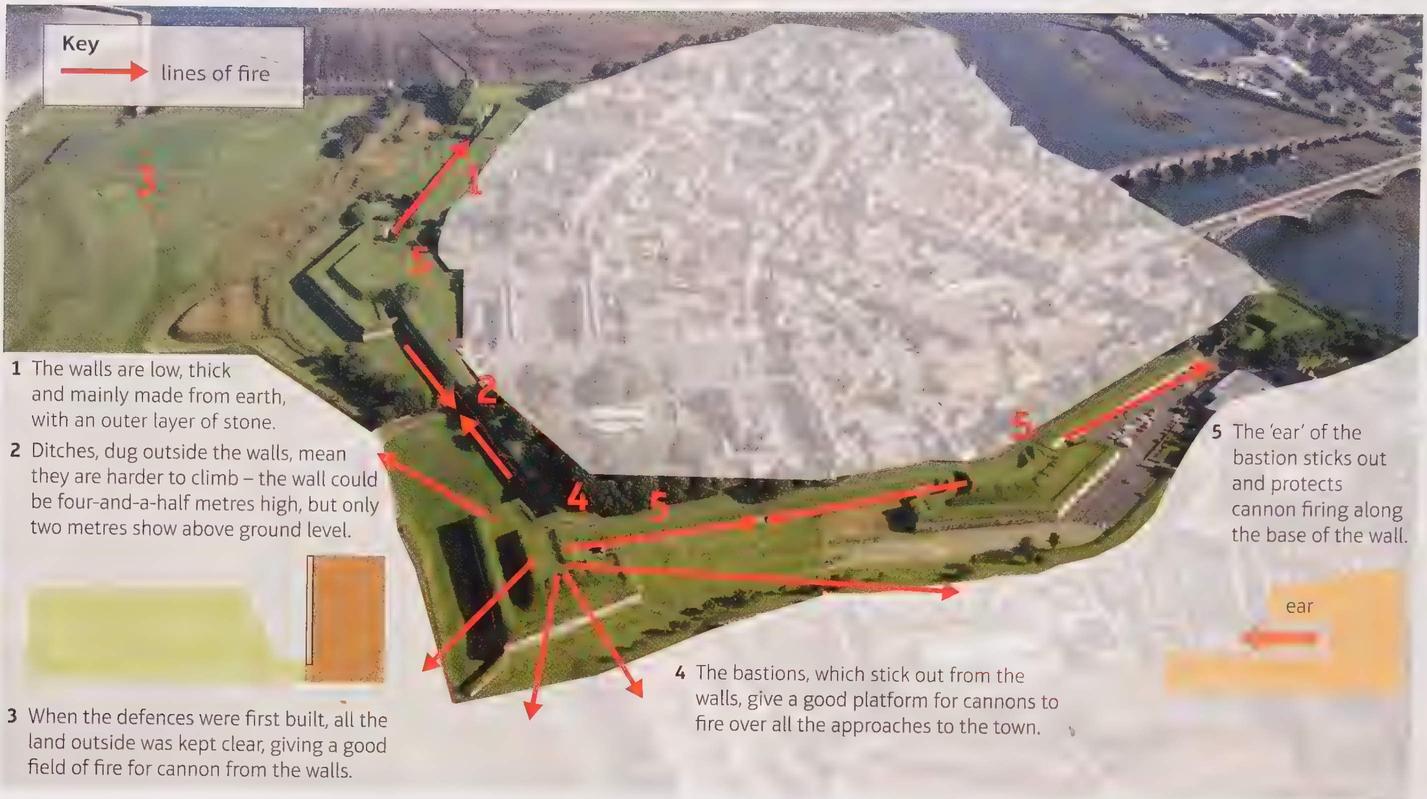
Key terms

Bastion*

A part of the defences of a town or fort that sticks out from the line of the walls.

Flanking fire*

Fire parallel to the walls of defences, which enables the defenders to fire at attackers just before they get to the walls.



1 The walls are low, thick and mainly made from earth, with an outer layer of stone.

2 Ditches, dug outside the walls, mean they are harder to climb – the wall could be four-and-a-half metres high, but only two metres show above ground level.

3 When the defences were first built, all the land outside was kept clear, giving a good field of fire for cannon from the walls.

4 The bastions, which stick out from the walls, give a good platform for cannons to fire over all the approaches to the town.

5 The 'ear' of the bastion sticks out and protects cannon firing along the base of the wall.

Figure 2.4 The Tudor defences of Berwick, still very visible today.

Why did states invest so much money in fortifications? The answer is, because they made those states much safer – harder to invade and conquer. Consider these two examples:

- **'s-Hertogenbosch, April to September 1629**
  The town had modern defences. It only had a garrison of 3,000 men, but it took six months for the Dutch army (which included English and Scottish regiments) to capture – and tied up about 50,000 Dutch troops for those six months.
- **Drogheda, 3–11 September 1649**
  Drogheda had high medieval stone walls, not modern defences. It had survived a siege of four months in 1641–42, when the besiegers had no siege cannon. Cromwell besieged Drogheda in his 1649 Irish campaign. It had a garrison of about 3,000 men. Cromwell, with just 12,000 men, took only six days from the arrival of his siege cannon to capture it.

Technology – in this case the combination of new-style defences and cannon – meant comparatively small forces could hold up large armies for months (and fighting usually stopped for the winter). You'll find out about the effects of the increase in government spending on England on page 60.

Activities ?

1. What changes were there in defences that made sieges harder for attackers?
2. Why did states invest money and troops in defences of towns and cities?
3. Prepare a two-minute presentation, illustrated with pictures and diagrams, explaining the changes in the use of artillery and fortifications, as if for a television news bulletin. Your teacher may have access to a selection of images that will help, or you can research them yourself online. Try 'Carisbrooke Castle from the air', 'angled bastion' and 'flanking fire' as search terms to start you off.

Extend your knowledge

England in France

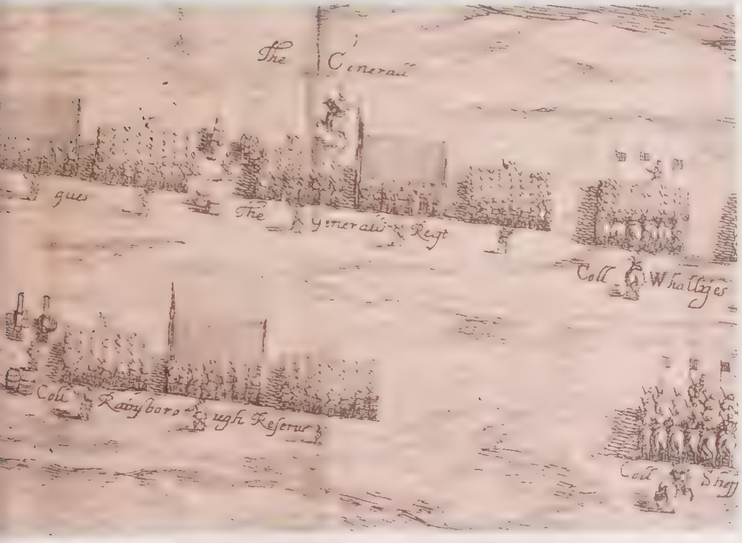
Calais was an English town from 1347–1558. It sent MPs to sit in Parliament. Boulogne was also English, from 1544–50. England spent £325,000 from 1538–58 on fortifying Boulogne and Calais. This was a huge sum, equal to the total revenues of the government for a year and a half. Siege warfare in this part of what is now France, dominated England's wars in the 1540s and 1550s.

Strategy and tactics

Wars in the 1500s and 1600s were not mainly about battles: they were mainly about sieges, and the control of territory. Land was not only defended by an army in the field: it was defended by forts, and fortified towns and cities.

Source C

Part of a picture plan of the Battle of Naseby, from a book written by Joshua Sprigg, a Parliamentary chaplain at the battle.



Concentrate on the infantry on the left of Source C. They are organised in regiments, and each regiment consists of two types of soldiers: musketeers and pikemen. The plan shows them with the pikemen in the centre and the musketeers on either side. Musketeers and pikemen needed to work together in regiments, because either could easily be destroyed if they were alone.

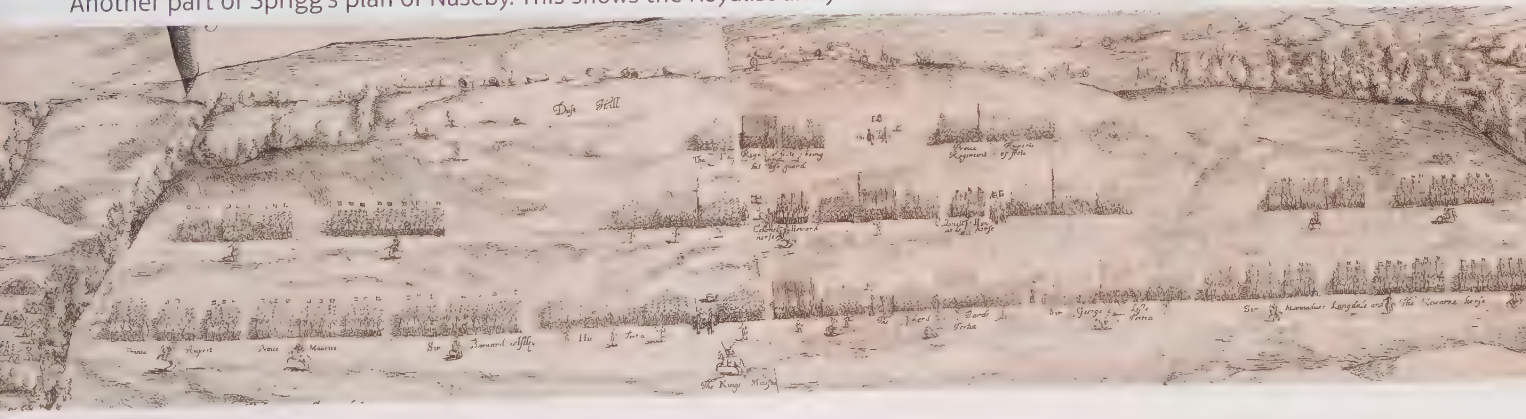
- Cavalry could ride down musketeers – because the muskets were so slow to load, they could only fire once in the time between the cavalry being out of range and the charge hitting them.
- Pikemen could stop a cavalry charge – they formed tight ranks with a hedge of pikes sticking out, and horses could not get close enough to do much damage.
- Pikemen could be slaughtered by the enemy's musketeers or cavalry with pistols. Pikemen were slow to move, as they needed to keep in tight formations; and jammed together, they were an easy target. Musketeers could easily avoid attack from the pikemen and continue to fire at them.

So, only by having pikemen and musketeers acting together could infantry be safe and effective on the battlefield. Successful troops were well trained, with different drumbeats used to order them into different formations. At the start of the fighting, the musketeers would usually be in lines in front of the pikemen, so they could fire unobstructed. If attacked by cavalry, they would try to form a square with the pikemen on the outside and the musketeers inside. Contemporaries described infantry versus infantry as 'push of pike', and hand-to-hand fighting would start with the pikemen in front, and the musketeers behind.

Source D shows the Royalist army at the start of the Battle of Naseby (see pages 63–66). This is a typical battle of the times, with the cavalry on each wing and the infantry in the centre.

Source D

Another part of Sprigg's plan of Naseby. This shows the Royalist army before the start of the battle.



Activity

Use a copy of Sprigg's plan of Naseby to summarise the changes in the nature of war from 1500 to 1645.

a Mark all the features that you can find.

b Colour-code them to show whether they were influenced by: governments and individuals; science; technology and communications; or attitudes in society. You may find a single change in warfare is linked to more than one of these.

The flintlock and the bayonet

The matchlock was not the perfect way to fire a gun. A slow-burning cord, called a match, set off the gunpowder. This cord was screwed onto the hammer, which fell when the musketeer pulled the trigger. There were lots of disadvantages.

- To have anything burning near gunpowder was obviously dangerous and a misfire could occur.
- When it was raining, the burning match would often go out and the musketeer could not fire.
- At night, you could see the glow from the lighted matches, so surprise attacks often failed.

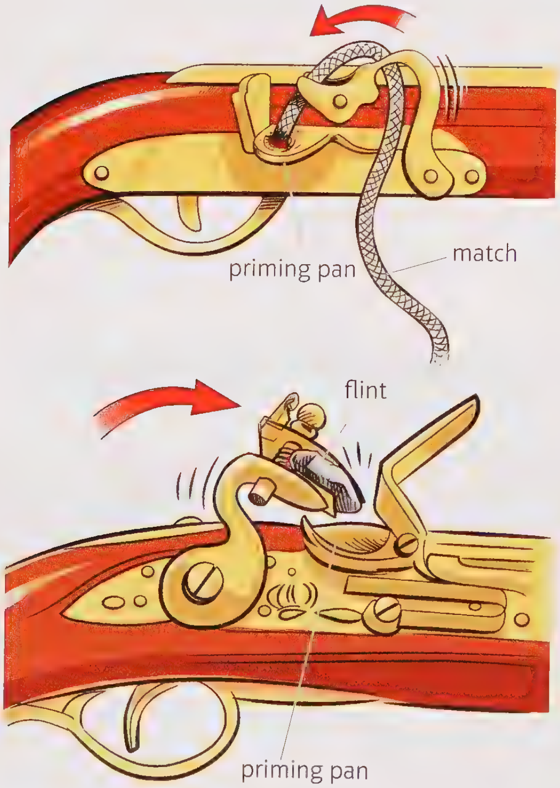


Figure 2.5 Matchlock and flintlock mechanisms.

The **flintlock** was much more effective. It had a piece of flint in the hammer and, when the trigger was pulled, the hammer fell and the flint was struck, making a spark, removing the need for a burning match. It also took half the time to load, so doubled the rate of fire. They were, however, much more expensive to make and quite delicate, so they often broke. In 1645, the New Model Army used them for the troops who guarded the artillery train and gunpowder (where lighted match was particularly dangerous). The army as a whole only adopted flintlocks in the 1690s, when improvements in manufacturing made them cheaper and more robust.

Needing to keep pikemen and musketeers working together was nothing but a problem. It required lots of training and, whatever point you were at in a battle, you were wasting some of your troops. When shooting, your pikemen were wasted. In hand-to-hand fighting, your musketeers were second-class troops at best. The solution, which took a long time to develop, was the **bayonet**: a short sword or dagger that could be fixed to the end of a musket. It turned the musket into a short pike. With the bayonet, musketeers did not need pikemen to protect them: they could fix their bayonets and defend themselves. However, the bayonet was not an instant success.

Timeline

The development of the bayonet

1647 Plug bayonet first used by French troops

1663 Plug bayonets issued to British troops who fought in Tangiers

1671 French army adopted the bayonet for one regiment – (the Fusiliers)

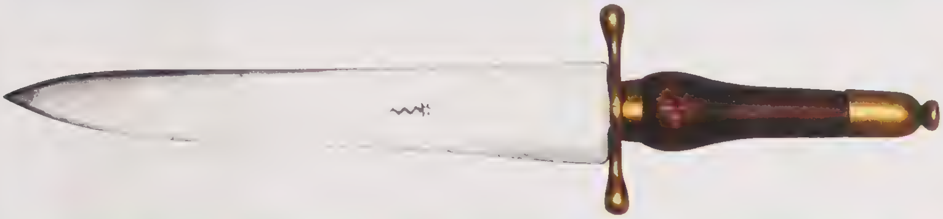
1672 First British regiment (Dragoons) armed with a bayonet

1697 Socket bayonet used by some British troops

1705 All British troops used the socket bayonet – the pike was no longer used

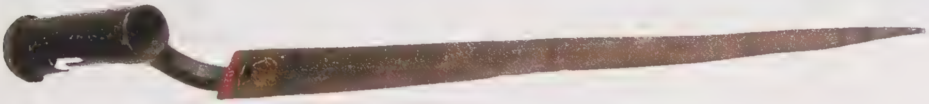
Source E

An English plug bayonet, about 1670. The bulge in the handle jammed tight in the musket barrel.



Source F

A socket bayonet. The sleeve fitted outside the barrel, and a plug fitted into the slot at the base of the sleeve.



Exam-style question, Section B

Explain why the flintlock and the bayonet replaced the pike and matchlock between 1600 and 1700. **12 marks**

You may use the following in your answer:

- matchlock muskets
- plug bayonets.

Exam tip

This question tests understanding of time and causation. The question says **you may use** the two points provided; make sure you add more details.

To get good marks, you need to have a clear line of argument – facts are not enough, explain why.

- The **plug bayonet** first used in 1647, was the first one developed. It fitted down the barrel of the musket like a plug. This meant that the soldier could not fire with the bayonet fitted, and this caused problems. In the time it took a regiment to fix bayonets, they could be charged by cavalry.
- Next came the **ring bayonet**, fixed to the outside of the barrel by two rings. This meant the soldier could fire when the bayonet was fitted, but the fitting was not very secure and the bayonet often slipped or broke off in fighting.
- The solution was the **socket bayonet**, which fitted over the outside of the barrel and had a locking system. It was first used in the mid-1690s.

Why did it take so long to adopt the bayonet? Obviously, technology played a part. Plug bayonets had plenty of disadvantages. There was also a practical problem with the early socket bayonets: because the sleeve of the bayonet had to fit tightly around the musket barrel, they were only effective if the bayonet was an exact fit. This became easier with the new flintlock muskets, which were the product of improvements in manufacturing and all had the same dimensions. Conservative social attitudes also slowed the adoption of the bayonet. There was opposition from some generals, who thought a pike was a more honourable weapon than a musket, and did not want to see the end of pikes.

Activities

1 List two advantages gained from the flintlock.

2 In pairs, discuss why only some troops were given flintlocks in the 1640s, but the whole army was given them by 1705. Compare your answer with another pair. Did you agree?

3 What advantages did armies gain from the bayonet?

4 Prepare a two-minute presentation on whether there was a turning point in the adoption of the bayonet. Include as much support as you can for your view.

5 Look carefully at the timeline. Does this suggest the most important opposition to the adoption of the bayonet was technology (not quite fit for purpose) or conservatism (because people did not like change)?

Extend your knowledge

Uniforms

During the Civil War each colonel, when he raised his regiment, chose what colour their coats would be. At Edgehill, the first major battle, Parliament's army had regiments with red, purple, blue, grey and green coats. This caused plenty of confusion, and before a battle each army would choose a 'field sign'. At Edgehill Parliament's army all wore orange scarves, at another battle it was just be a sheet of paper stuck in their hats. When the New Model Army was formed it had red coats, with each regiment having a different colour lining. This system was kept after the Restoration of the monarchy, and a standard long coat was introduced. Red was probably chosen as the colour because it was the cheapest dye, easy to produce at the time.

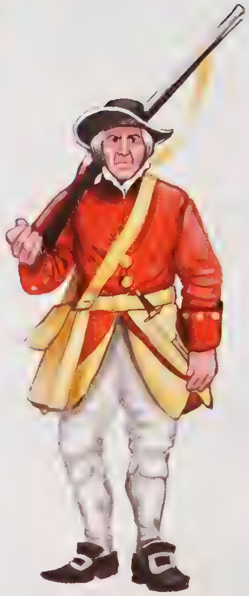


Figure 2.6 A Civil War pikeman, c1642.

Figure 2.7 A British soldier about 1700.

Summary

- Until the late 17th century, armies were a mixture of pikemen and musketeers in the infantry, along with cavalry and artillery. With the mix of weapons, soldiers needed much more training.
- By 1705, all infantry used the musket with a bayonet – there were no more pikemen. Armies got much larger.
- Artillery was very important in sieges in 1500, but less important in battles. By 1550, defences could withstand artillery but states spent much more money on them. From the 1630s, cannon were more important in battles.
- Cavalry wore less armour as this period progressed. In the 16th century, the normal tactic was to fire pistols rather than to 'charge home'. From the 1630s onwards, cavalry normally 'charged home' as shock troops.
- The major wars of the 16th and 17th centuries were fought in Europe. There were lots of British soldiers fighting in them, and communication was very important as the new ideas were quickly understood and followed in England.
- The change from the longbow to the musket shows how slowly change could happen – taking from the 1510s to 1595.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 How did the size of armies change between 1500 and 1700?

S2 Why did pikes and muskets replace bills and bows as the weapons for the infantry?

S3 Why were cavalry not used as shock troops in the 16th century?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, look up the answers on pages 45–54 and record them.

Challenge

C1 Give an example of a change in this period that was a **trend**, and another that was a **turning point**, and explain the reasons for your choice.

C2 Did changes in technology affect the nature of war in this period? Give examples and explain their effects.

How confident do you feel about your answers to these questions? If you are not sure you answered them well, try the activities on pages 48, 50 and 53.

2.2 The experience of war, 1500–1700

Learning outcomes

- Understand the increasing professionalism of the army and the impact of the New Model Army.
- Understand the development of a standing army in England.
- Understand the impact on English civilians of warfare in this period.

The English spent most of these 200 years at war. As well as the years when England had declared war, there were other years when it was unofficially at war. In these years (shown as unofficial on Figure 2.8), English troops were fighting, paid for by the monarch or by public subscription, but war had not formally been declared. Like the 20th century, there were also years of 'cold' war, where sides had already been taken, and though fighting had not started, it could at any time. As Figure 2.8 shows, there were not many years of peace.

So the first thing to say about the experience of war in this period, is that it was 'normal' – both for recruitment and for many other parts of the experience.

There were two different types of wars.

- **War at home** – fighting rebellions, invaders or the Scots.
- **War overseas** – fighting in France, the Netherlands, Germany, Portugal and Spain. Although Ireland was ruled by the English monarchs, the conditions of service in Ireland mean that it also falls into this category; and there were lots of wars in Ireland in these 200 years – 27 years of war in Elizabeth I's reign (1558–1603) alone!

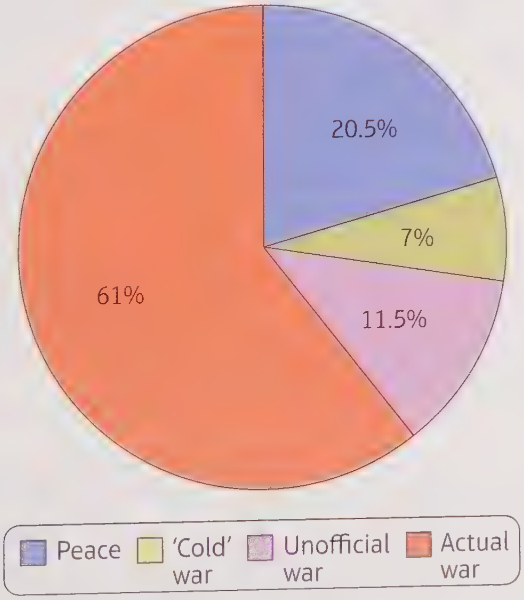


Figure 2.8 War and Peace 1500–1699.

These 200 years also divide into **three** very distinct periods:

- **1500–1642**, when systems started by the **Tudors** were created, flourished and failed.
- **1642–60**, the years of the **English Civil Wars** and the **English Republic**.
- **1660–99**, the **Restoration** and **war abroad**.

Recruitment and training

The Tudor system

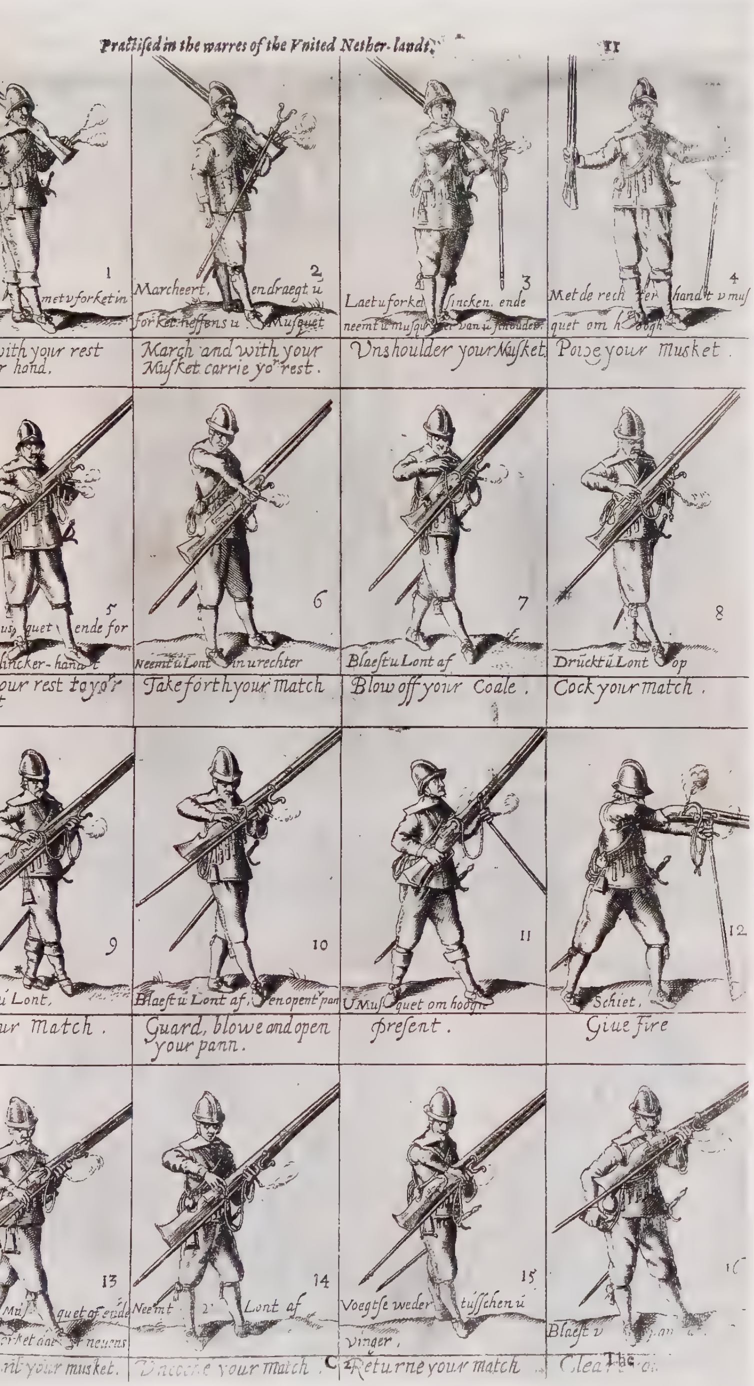
The Tudors came to power in 1485, at the end of the long series of civil wars known as the **Wars of the Roses**. The way armies were recruited in the late medieval period gave lots of power to great nobles, and these nobles were so strong they felt they could challenge the king and even replace him. The Tudors wanted a way to recruit the army that did not leave too much power in the hands of the nobles. They chose to go back to the **militia** system, outlined in the Statute of Winchester back in 1285 (see page 28). The key features of the new system were:

- all men from 16–60 were supposed to serve
- they had to provide their own weapons (an Act of 1559 set out ten levels of income, and the different weapons and armour that men at each level had to provide)
- in each county, there were **general musters** (usually every couple of years) where all the men had to attend, and show their arms and armour – there should also be some training during the day
- there were fines for not attending musters, or for not bringing the right weapons and armour
- the monarch appointed **Lord Lieutenants** in each county to run the militia
- in theory, the law said the militia could not be made to serve outside their county unless the country was invaded.

If troops were needed to serve overseas, the government would tell the Lord Lieutenant how many his county had to send and where they should join the army. The troops were usually **'pressed'** (forced to go, not volunteers). This was not *strictly* legal, but it happened all the time.

Source A

Drill books taught officers how to train their men. This page shows the 16 steps in the drill for firing a musket, from a drill book written by Henry Hexham, published in 1637 (and reprinted in 1639 and 1642). Hexham was an experienced soldier in an English regiment in the Thirty Years' War.



By 1573, it was clear that the system was not providing well-trained men; so **Trained Bands** were set up – a proportion of the men from each county who met once a month during the summer to train.

In the 1580s, with the danger of a Spanish invasion growing, the government again realised the men were not well enough trained, and they sent professional soldiers called **Muster Masters** to run the training. Local gentlemen, who had been in charge before, didn't like taking orders from these professionals, who were usually from a lower social class. In the 1590s, each county took over paying the Muster Master and, gradually over the next ten years, the professionals were dropped and local gentlemen appointed as Muster Masters instead. The training got worse. This is a good example of the way social attitudes affected warfare. It was thought better to have a weaker army led by gentlemen, than to have lower-class men telling gentlemen what to do.

The training

Training was vital. To be successful, hundreds of men had to do exactly the same series of moves, at the same time, while in a battle. Source A shows how complicated just firing a musket was – and this does not include reloading it for the next shot! Musketeers were trained to fight in six rows (or ranks). In battle, each rank walked through the gaps in the ranks ahead, to get to the front to fire. So, if there were 120 musketeers, for example, only 20 fired at once. It took a lot of training to make sure they did not make mistakes. It took even more training for the musketeers and pikemen to work together.

How well did it work?

For most of the 16th century, the system worked. Wars against Scotland were successful. However, it was never really tested. A professional soldier – who was brought back from the Dutch Wars in 1588, as a commander for the army to resist the expected Spanish invasion – wrote to a friend: 'I wonder why I can see no man affeared but myself'. But the Spanish army did not land, and the English saw 1588 as a victory for their system. In the 17th century, things got worse (see Interpretation 1).

Wars overseas were a different matter. There were few volunteers. The unemployed and criminals taken from prison were usually forced to go, and many working men were pressed too. Worse than that, corruption was rife: men who could afford a bribe were not chosen.

Service overseas was often fatal: for example, only 10% of the 12,000 men sent to fight in Germany in 1625 were still alive the next year!

As well as being unfair, and often fatal, service overseas was quite common. In the last 17 years of Elizabeth's reign, 105,810 men were sent overseas in the army. The equivalent percentage of the population today is over 1.5 million, which is more than five times the total number of troops who served in Afghanistan and Iraq between 2000 and 2015.

Interpretation 1

Historian C.H. Firth writing about the Trained Bands in his book, *Cromwell's Army* (1902). Ward was a professional soldier who wrote about the militia system in 1639.

> According to Ward the chief thing the trained bands learnt was to drink. Whenever they met near a great town, many of the soldiers would slip away and stay 'in the inns and taverns tippling when they should be exercising in the field'. The God they worshipped in their trainings, as another writer put it, was not [War] but [Wine].

Two disastrous wars against Scotland (1639 and 1640) showed the system had failed. Soldiers mutinied and deserted when they could; and one commander said, of his 5,000 men, only 200 knew how to fire their muskets.

The English Civil Wars

Amateur soldiers dominated the early years of the Civil Wars. Some professional officers came back from the wars in Europe, and drill books were much used; but the nobility and gentry still thought they had a right to command, and they did not like being told what to do by, mere, professional soldiers. Troops often refused to serve too far away from home. Pay was usually months late, and both sides took **'free quarter'** – taking supplies from local people and merchants without paying. Both sides pressed much of their infantry, and desertion was a big problem throughout the war. However, through three years of war, some of these amateurs became experienced and successful soldiers.

Activities

1 Was war a normal part of life in the 16th and 17th centuries? Give reasons for your answer.

2 List all the different statements about change in warfare and the reasons for it that you can support with evidence from Source A. How many can you come up with?

3 How can you tell service overseas was unpopular?

4 Copy the following table, filling in the 'Factors' which have affected change in the middle column. You need to choose from: attitudes, communications, government, government (strategic necessity), technology.

Change	Factor	Explanation
Abandonment of the indenture system (see page 28) and replacement with militia system.	1 2	**1** To make the great lords less powerful, the king ended the system. **2** Printed drill books meant it was easier to train men in different parts of the country in the same way.
Development of Trained Bands from 1573 onwards.		Printed drill books helped developments in drill spread. Armies trained in the new systems usually won.
Professional officers sent to train the Trained Bands, 1583–91.		Threats of war were growing and it was clear the Trained Bands were not trained well enough to be successful.
Most counties got rid of professional officers in the 1590s.		Professional soldiers were often not from the upper classes; and the upper classes in each county felt they should be in charge and did not like being told what to do.
Collapse in effectiveness of the Trained Bands shown by the failure in the Bishops' Wars (against Scotland) 1639–40.	1 2	**1** Lack of professional officers. **2** Men stopped taking their training seriously, and spent their time drinking and playing.

The New Model Army

In the winter of **1644–45**, Parliament made decisions that ultimately won the war. It would raise a national army, pay it regularly, and give successful soldiers the command – not politicians. **Oliver Cromwell**, a Member of Parliament and successful general, was one of the proposers of the plan; but, as an MP, he had to give up his army command. **Sir Thomas Fairfax** was to command, and three of Parliament's existing armies were disbanded to provide the men. However, there were not enough.

- **Cavalry**: 6,600, all raised from existing armies, many from Cromwell's forces. They were well paid, 24 pence a day (but they had to buy food for themselves and their horses). Cromwell's cavalry were well trained and disciplined. They were able to charge, defeat the enemy cavalry, and remain under control, so they could be used to complete victory in a battle (see pages 63–66).
- **Dragoons**: 1,000, raised from existing forces.
- **Infantry**: 14,400 men. Only half were raised from existing forces and over 7,000 had to be pressed. During 1645, desertion from the New Model Army was such a problem that, from April to October 1645, a total of 14,500 men were pressed; yet the infantry was always under its theoretical strength of 14,400. Infantry soldiers were poorly paid, just 8 pence a day, the same as a labourer.

Fairfax wanted successful soldiers as his officers, irrespective of social class, and Cromwell as his second-in-command. Both were controversial requests, but he got his way in both cases. Cromwell was from the gentry, but many of the officers were not.

After destroying the king's main army at **Naseby (14 June 1645)**, this New Model Army quickly won the war. Winning a series of smaller battles and sieges improved its morale, and desertion slowed to a trickle. The war was over by the end of the year, and the last Royalist army surrendered in March 1646. About 4,000 ex-Royalist infantry, after they surrendered, joined the New Model Army. Fairfax told a defeated Royalist commander: 'I found you had made them good soldiers, I have made them good men'.

Extend your knowledge

The New Model Army, politics and parliament

Parliament found the peace harder to win than the New Model Army had found the war. The Army refused to obey parliament in 1647 and, for the next 13 years, it played a part in British political life like no army before or since. This had an impact on government and public opinion on a standing army in years to come.

- In 1647, the Army kidnapped the king. Fairfax set up an Army Council to debate political issues. The Army refused to disband, threatened London, and demanded political reform and religious toleration.
- In 1648, the Second Civil War broke out. Fairfax and Cromwell crushed the Royalists and defeated the Scots at Preston.
- In 1648–49, Cromwell and the Army 'purged' parliament – using soldiers to keep out MPs they did not trust. This parliament, called the Rump, tried the king and executed him, ruling England as a republic.
- In 1653, Cromwell and the Army expelled the Rump Parliament in order to force reform. In December, Cromwell became Lord Protector.
- In 1654–55, Cromwell's first parliament met. Despite soldiers purging its membership, it didn't do what Cromwell wanted, so, backed by the Army, he dissolved it.
- In 1655–57, local government was taken over by 'Major Generals' and the Army.
- In 1659–60, the Army forced Cromwell's son (who had taken over as Lord Protector) to resign, and reinstated the Rump. It then expelled the Rump again, and invited Charles II to become king.

1 How might this have influenced discussions in future parliaments about maintaining a permanent army?

2 Charles II was a Catholic king and parliament was largely Protestant. How might this have affected the desire of parliament to give control of a permanent army to their new king?

Source B

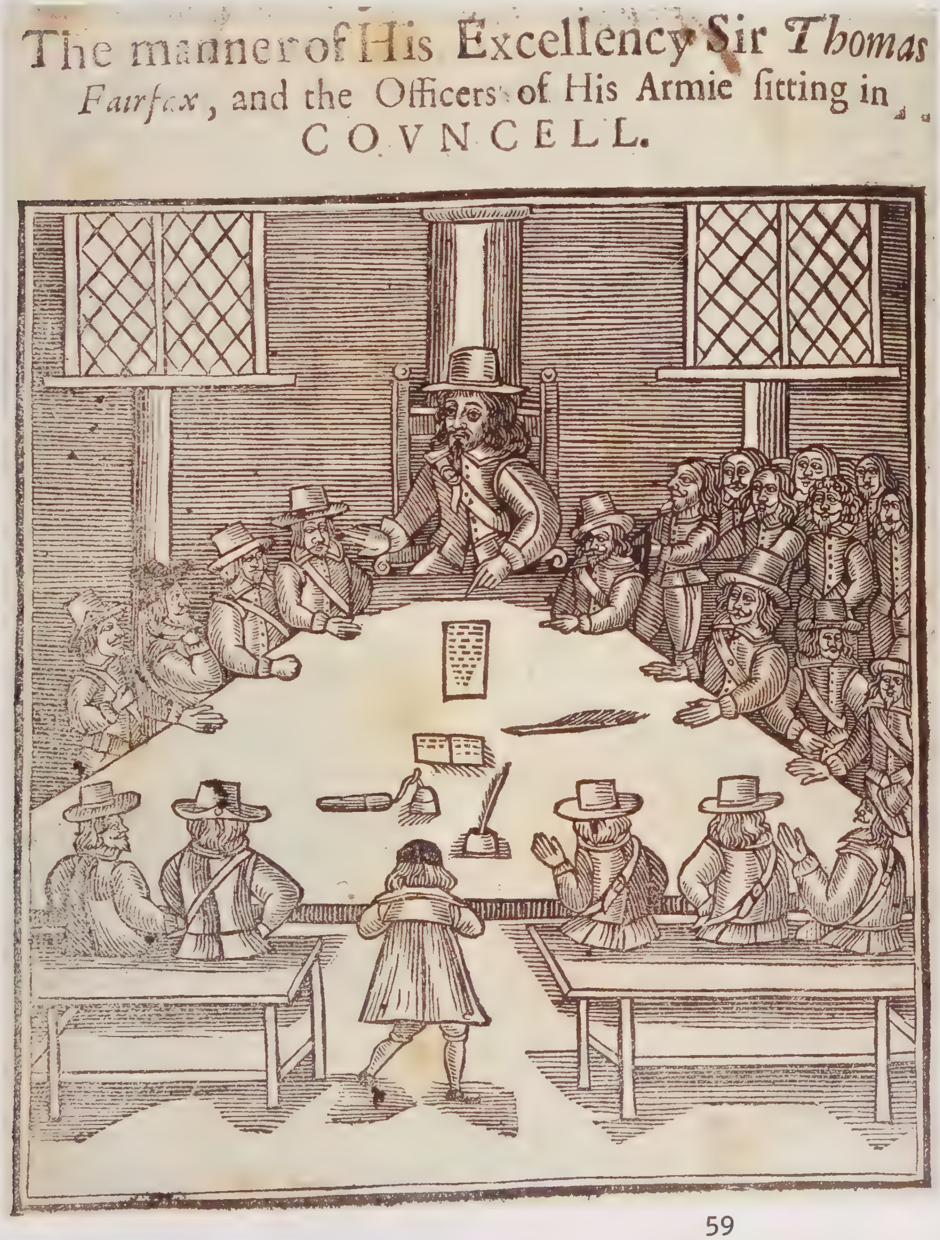
From *A Declaration of Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Army*, printed 14 June 1647 – 12 days after New Model soldiers had kidnapped Charles I.

> *We were not a mere mercenary army, hired to serve any arbitrary power of the state, but called forth and conjured by the several declarations of parliament to the defence of our own and the people's just rights and liberties.*

For most of its history, the New Model Army did not need to press men to serve. It was a professional army of volunteers. Unlike earlier armies, it was not disbanded when the war was over. Not just 1647, but also 1651–58, were years of peace, and the army continued as a normal part of British life.

Source C

Thomas Fairfax in session with his Council of War and representatives from the common soldiers of the New Model Army – from a pamphlet printed for the Army in 1647.


The manner of His Excellency Sir *Thomas Fairfax*, and the Officers of His Armie ſitting in
COVNCELL.

Activities

1. Describe how Civil War armies were recruited before the New Model Army.
2. Explain how the New Model Army was recruited.
3. How often did the New Model Army intervene in politics?
4. What contribution did Cromwell make to the development of warfare and the army?

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain **one** way in which the New Model Army was different to the English armies before it.

4 marks

Exam tip

You need to pick one example, and explain what it was like before the New Model Army, and for the New Model Army. You should try to include specific knowledge in your example. Add the explanation and some detail: *Earlier armies were disbanded at the end of the war, but the New Model Army continued in the years of peace, 1651–58. It was a standing army.*

The development of a standing army

A **standing army** is a full time, professional army, which exists permanently. The great powers of Europe, which had been more or less continually at war throughout the 16th century, all had standing armies by the time Elizabeth I came to the English throne (1558). The reasons to have one were:

- war was complicated and success depended on well-trained troops
- a standing army made the state, and its ruler, more powerful.

This second reason was also part of the problem. In Europe, kings who had standing armies had more power, and had risen above the old sharing of power with their parliaments, nobles, regions and towns. In England, Parliament did not want a standing army, because:

- it saw what was happening in Europe, and wanted to protect the balance of power between the monarch, Parliament, the nobles and gentry, and the town councils who ran local government
- it controlled taxes, and a standing army was very expensive. The monarch could not have one without Parliament voting a massive increase in taxes; and Parliament was as much against higher taxes as it was against losing power to the monarch.

So, before the Civil Wars, England did not have a standing army. It was not a problem in 1588, when the navy stopped the Spanish invasion; but it was a problem in 1639 and 1640, when the militia was no use and the Scots occupied northern England. One of the key reasons why the Civil Wars broke out in 1642 was that Parliament would not trust Charles I with an army, because they feared if he had one he would use it against them.

The New Model Army was a standing army. Taxes were kept high to pay for it, and it interfered in politics and changed the government. After 1660, the memory of the New Model Army was so toxic to politicians that it took almost 100 years to agree there should be a standing army (despite the fact that it already existed) because they were concerned about the cost and worried about interference in politics.

Activities ?

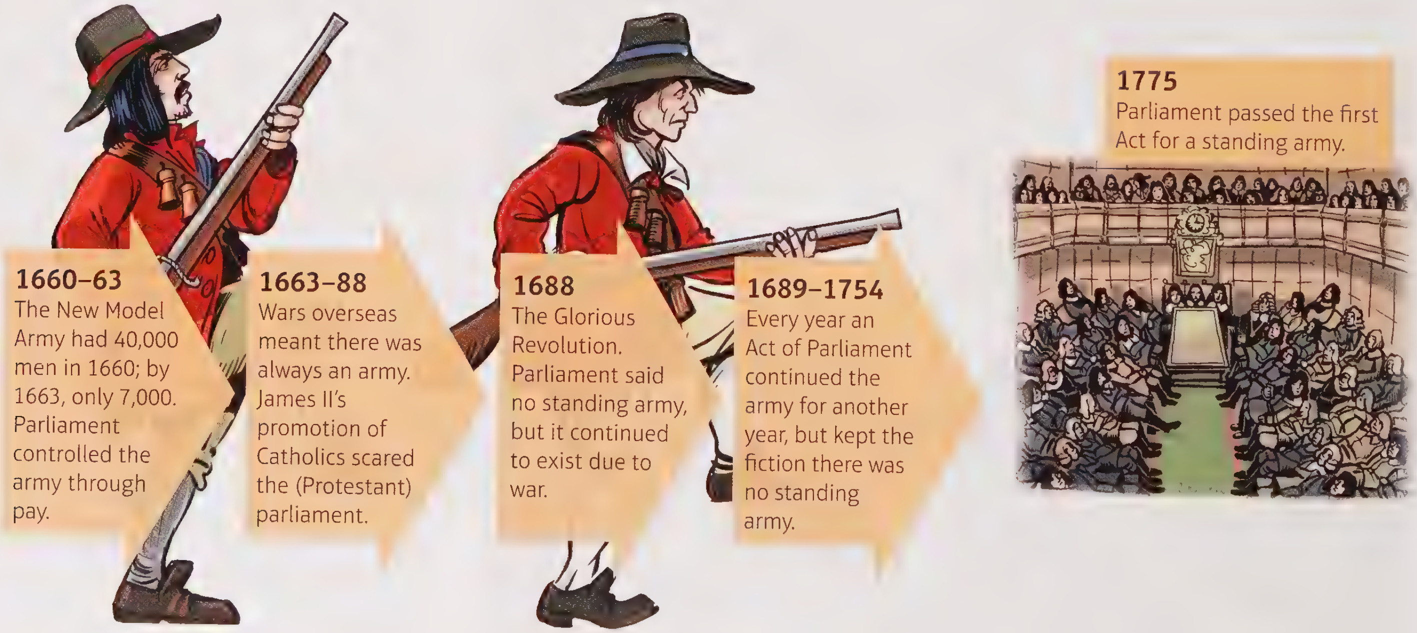
1 List the arguments for and against a standing army.

2 Prepare a three-minute presentation to argue why **one** of the following dates should be celebrated as the start of the continuous service of the current British Army, and the others should not:

  a 1645 – formation of the New Model Army.

  b 1661 – last two New Model Army regiments become regiments in the new royal army (the modern Coldstream Guards and Lifeguards).

  c 1755 – Act of Parliament for a standing army.



1660–63
The New Model Army had 40,000 men in 1660; by 1663, only 7,000. Parliament controlled the army through pay.

1663–88
Wars overseas meant there was always an army. James II's promotion of Catholics scared the (Protestant) parliament.

1688
The Glorious Revolution. Parliament said no standing army, but it continued to exist due to war.

1689–1754
Every year an Act of Parliament continued the army for another year, but kept the fiction there was no standing army.

1775
Parliament passed the first Act for a standing army.

Figure 2.9 The steps to a standing army.

The impact of war on civilians

Before the Civil Wars

- **Recruitment** – you have seen how common war was (page 55), and how many people were conscripted to serve overseas (pages 56–57). Those who did survive were **demobilised** (released from the army) at the port where they landed and given a pass saying they were returning soldiers – which enabled them to walk to their homes without being arrested as vagabonds. They had to rely on charity for food and lodging. When they got home, they usually found their jobs were gone and they were unemployed. This disruption often had a knock-on effect for civilians. For example, in 1545, when the French planned an invasion, so many sailors were pressed to serve in the navy that women took over sailing the fishing boats. Service in the militia was much less disruptive, and muster days were often more fun than they were militarily effective.
- **Requisitioning** (demanding goods and services) was an essential part of war. Merchant ships were requisitioned for the navy and to transport troops and supplies. Horses were requisitioned, and so were other essential war supplies, like shoes. This disrupted normal business and could create shortages.
- **Taxes** went up in time of war and trade slowed, so people were 'squeezed' by higher taxes and lower incomes. Linked with taxes was inflation, which went up in times of war, and caused real hardship to people – as prices went up while incomes did not.
- **Damage** was largely limited to the border with Scotland, and coastal towns and islands, where there was fighting. For example, the French invaded the Isle of Wight in 1545, and the Spanish invaded Cornwall in 1595, when they burnt Mousehole, Newlyn and Penzance.

During the Civil Wars

Because the fighting was in England, the Civil Wars had a huge effect on civilians and civilian life.

- **Recruitment** – volunteers left their families and work, disrupting the lives of those around them, as well as the economy. The Trained Bands of many counties (and especially London) often served for a few weeks during the summer – with even larger disruption to their home area. Until the New Model Army became the only army, men were pressed to serve by both Parliament and the king. The lives of these men were probably most disrupted of all.
- **Requisitioning** was mainly plunder and free quarter (see below), but ships and military supplies were often requisitioned as well. This had a serious impact on people's lives.
- **Plunder** was very common in the Civil Wars. Sometimes it was allowed by the officers, but at other times it was just armed men stealing from unarmed civilians. Reasons for it included:
  - shortage of supplies
  - no money to pay the soldiers, and their pay being in arrears (late)
  - reward for good work – it was normal to grant plunder after a successful battle or siege
  - coercion – plundering the enemy's supporters.
- **Free quarter** – to civilians, this often felt very close to plunder. Armies would force communities to feed and house troops, and just leave a signed receipt for the value of what they had taken. These were almost never paid. But the New Model Army surprised people in 1645 by always paying when the receipts were presented.
- **Taxes** – both sides spent a lot of money, and both sides collected high taxes from the land they controlled. For example, Oxfordshire paid £3,500 a year in taxes before the war, and £60,000 a year during the war – an increase of 1700%.
- **Damage** – an army on the march could ruin crops for a year, but sieges did much more damage. Houses in the suburbs were often pulled down by the defenders before a siege, in order to stop the enemy using them for cover. The best estimate is that over 11,000 houses were destroyed and 55,000 people made homeless during the Civil Wars. Many surviving castles were partially destroyed to make them useless for defence.

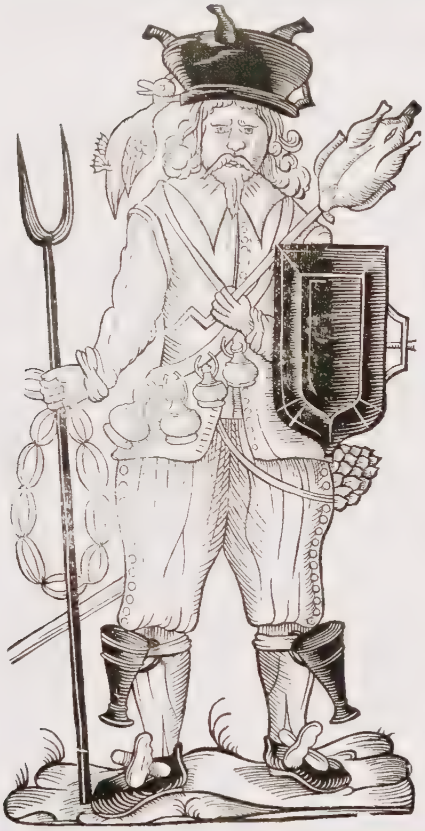
Extend your knowledge

The cost of the war in Cheshire

Cheshire was a small county, and not a wealthy one, but it has good records. The Civil Wars cost Cheshire: £100,000 in tax, £120,000 in free quarter (never paid for) and £90,000 in plunder.

Source D

A cartoon suggesting soldiers were more interested in plunder than fighting, published in England in 1642.



Activities

1. Look at source D and make two lists of the plunder and the military equipment that the soldier has.
2. Draw up a table with the column headings: 'Impact', 'Before the Civil Wars', 'During the Civil Wars' and 'Which had most impact on civilians': 'Recruitment', 'Requisitioning', 'Taxes', 'Damage'.
3. In groups, prepare a five-minute historical documentary on the impact of war, 1500–1700. Your teacher may have access to sources that will help, or you can research them yourself online. Try 'Irish depositions 1641', 'Spanish invasion of Cornwall 1595', or your local area and 'English Civil War' as search terms to start you off.

Summary

- War was common in this period, and very different for those sent overseas than for those who stayed at home.
- The Tudor militia system (an amateur army training adult men) lasted until 1640, but most soldiers who served overseas were pressed (forced).
- The Civil Wars had a tremendous impact on all aspects of life.
- The New Model Army emerged as a professional standing army – which interfered in politics.
- Britain had a standing army in effect long before the 1755 Act of Parliament officially set one up.
- Plunder and free quarter were very common in the Civil Wars.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 How was war overseas different from normal militia service?

S2 Why was training more important and more complicated as the period progressed?

S3 How well did the Tudor militia system work?

S4 What was *new* about the New Model Army?

S5 Why was the impact of war, up to 1640, different in Cornwall or Northumberland compared to London or Warwickshire?

S6 Why were plunder and free quarter so common in the Civil Wars?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, look up the answers on pages 55–61 and record them.

Challenge

C1 How did attitudes about social class affect the approach to training in these years?

C2 Find two examples of action by the government that affected the way people who were civilians to start with were affected by recruitment and training for war.

C3 Why did the change from the longbow to the musket take so long to happen in England? (You should have more than one reason.)

How confident do you feel about your answers to these questions? If you are not sure you answered them well, try the activities on pages 57, 59, 61 and this page.

2.3 The Battle of Naseby, 14 June 1645

Learning outcomes

- Understand the reasons for the outcome of the Battle of Naseby.
- Understand the role of Oliver Cromwell in the battle.

In 1644 Parliament made an alliance with the Scots, which brought the Scots army in on their side. They thought this would be enough to win the war. But the royalists survived and won important battles in the south.

Strategy

- Parliament, discouraged by its failure to win the war in 1644, had created the New Model Army. Commanded by Fairfax, its task was to win the war by bringing Charles I's main army to battle and defeating it.
- The Royalists wanted to prevent the New Model Army from joining the Scottish army in the north – and then defeat it.

Charles split his army. He took the main part north from his capital, Oxford, into the Midlands. About 3,000 cavalry were sent west. Fairfax besieged Oxford to lure Charles back to attack him. Instead, Charles captured Leicester, a Parliamentary town. He thought the plunder would encourage his troops and the attack would force Fairfax to leave Oxford to respond. It worked. Fairfax left Oxford and, despite it being Charles' plan to lure Fairfax into battle, he surprised a Royalist outpost at Naseby on **13 June**.

The armies

The Royalist army: about 12,500 men, of which about 6,700 were cavalry and 5,800 infantry.

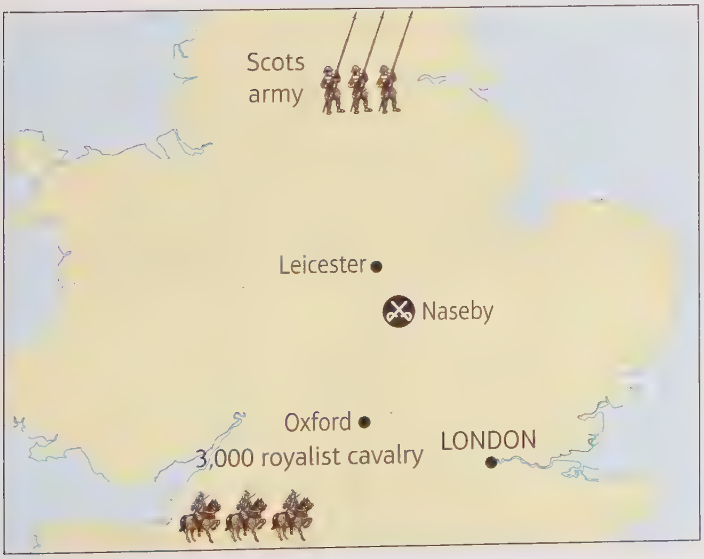


Figure 2.10 The key places in the Naseby campaign.

This army had been successful in 1644, and most troops had been fighting since 1642, so they were experienced. Charles' best general, Prince Rupert, was with the army, but Charles was in command. He asked for advice, both from Rupert and from civilian councillors, and followed the civilians' advice to attack, rather than Rupert's suggestion to retreat and wait for the 3,000 men in the west to join him.

The New Model Army: about 17,000 men, with about 8,500 cavalry and 8,500 infantry.

The cavalry were experienced troops, well trained and disciplined. Many had come from forces commanded by Cromwell. The infantry were mainly pressed men, and perhaps another 5,000 had deserted since the start of the campaign in April. Scared by the fall of Leicester, Parliament agreed Cromwell could be Fairfax's second-in-command, and he arrived the night before the battle.

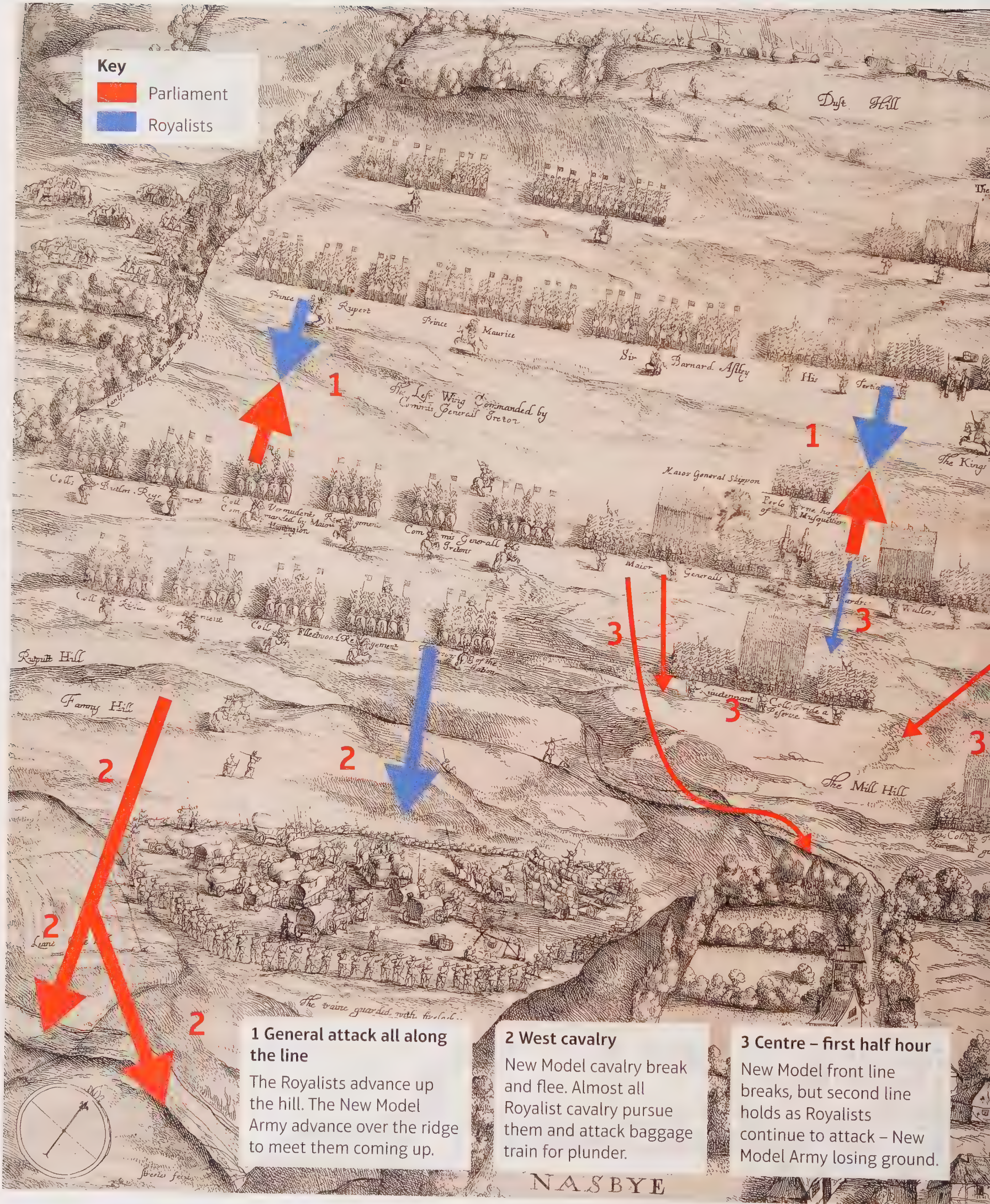
The battlefield

The country around Naseby in 1645 was an area of open-field villages. Land was still in the medieval pattern of vast fields and common land. As you can see on the plan on the next page, there were no hedges, except the Sulby hedge, which ran down the western side of the battlefield. In the centre, Broad Moor was a large expanse of common land. This made it ideal for cavalry.

The battle

Both sides wanted to fight, and from about **2am** they deployed along two ridges: the Royalists on Dust Hill to the north and the New Model Army on the ridge by Naseby. Fairfax kept most of his men on the far side of the ridge. The morale of the infantry was poor, and he did not want them to spend hours looking at the enemy. Cromwell thought Fairfax's position was too strong and this might stop the Royalists attacking, and persuaded him to take up a weaker position.

As soon as they were in position, the Royalists attacked. Neither side had time to bring their artillery to the battle. Fairfax had some smaller cannon that fired once as the Royalists advanced, but they had no effect on the battle. There were six steps to a complete victory for the New Model Army, as shown on pages 64–65.



1 General attack all along the line

The Royalists advance up the hill. The New Model Army advance over the ridge to meet them coming up.

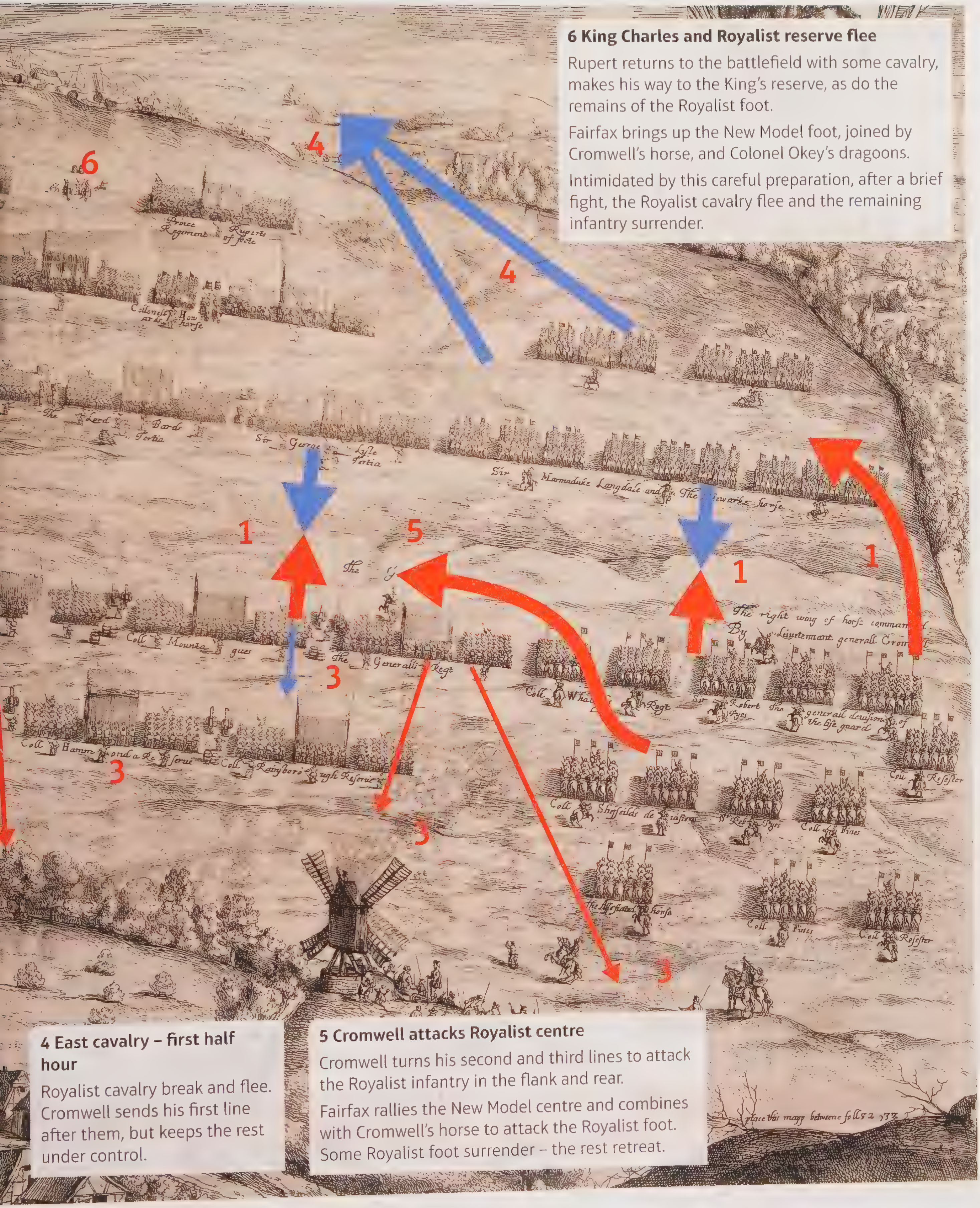
2 West cavalry

New Model cavalry break and flee. Almost all Royalist cavalry pursue them and attack baggage train for plunder.

3 Centre – first half hour

New Model front line breaks, but second line holds as Royalists continue to attack – New Model Army losing ground.

Figure 2.11 Naseby: six steps to victory.



6 King Charles and Royalist reserve flee

Rupert returns to the battlefield with some cavalry, makes his way to the King's reserve, as do the remains of the Royalist foot.

Fairfax brings up the New Model foot, joined by Cromwell's horse, and Colonel Okey's dragoons.

Intimidated by this careful preparation, after a brief fight, the Royalist cavalry flee and the remaining infantry surrender.

4 East cavalry – first half hour

Royalist cavalry break and flee. Cromwell sends his first line after them, but keeps the rest under control.

5 Cromwell attacks Royalist centre

Cromwell turns his second and third lines to attack the Royalist infantry in the flank and rear.

Fairfax rallies the New Model centre and combines with Cromwell's horse to attack the Royalist foot. Some Royalist foot surrender – the rest retreat.

What happened after the battle was almost as important as the winning of it. About 4,500 of the Royalist foot soldiers were prisoners, but most of the cavalry escaped. Cromwell's cavalry did not stop to plunder the Royalist baggage train, but chased the Royalist cavalry all the way to Leicester, killing hundreds. Charles lost his infantry in the battle and his cavalry in the pursuit after the battle. His main army was destroyed.

Why did the New Model Army win?

- Royalist overconfidence: they thought the New Model Army was weak, so they attacked despite being outnumbered.
- The New Model cavalry, trained by Cromwell, were as good as the Royalists and better disciplined. Rupert wasted the advantage on the west wing, because he could not control his troops. Cromwell turned the advantage on the east wing into a victory by keeping control of his troops; some chasing the Royalist cavalry off the field, while the rest attacked their infantry.
- The second line of the New Model infantry held out long enough for Cromwell to attack the Royalists in the flank and rear.
- Parliament had created an army with experienced officers and generals, determined to win the war.
- The strategic position of the two sides. The Royalists needed a quick victory before the New Model Army could join the Scots.
- Fairfax was an inspirational general. He encouraged the New Model infantry, fighting with them when the second line did not break. He then lead the infantry in the counter-attack on the Royalist centre and, finally, he carefully organised an overwhelming force to attack the king's reserve.

How important was Cromwell?

- As a politician, he was one of the key leaders in setting up the New Model Army, and in supporting the policy that its officers should be the best soldiers, not just well-born men.
- As a general in 1643 and 1644, he recruited and trained the best cavalry in the war, and these units were the core of the New Model cavalry.
- His arrival the night before the battle was a great boost to the morale of the New Model Army.
- His advice to Fairfax to change his position before the battle may have made sure that the Royalists would attack, rather than change their minds and retreat to Leicester.
- His leadership on the east wing of the battle, and in the cavalry attack on the centre, was vital in two of the pivotal incidents of the battle.

Activities

?

1 Draw and complete a table with the column headings: 'Stages', 'What happened', 'Did this affect the result?', 'Was Cromwell significant?' The row headings should be: 'Strategy', 'Campaign before the battle', 'Size of armies', 'Training and experience', 'Step 1', 'Step 2', 'Step 3', 'Step 4', 'Step 5', 'Step 6', 'After the battle'.

2 You have been commissioned to create a section of a website to explain why the New Model Army won Naseby. Produce a rough plan of your site and prepare a three-minute pitch to help you get the job. You can choose whether you are pitching to 'www.CharlesIwasstupid.com', 'www.Cromwellmyhero.com' or the BBC History site.

Summary

- The Royalists were overconfident and fought before they had collected their full strength.
- The New Model Army had strong cavalry – better trained and disciplined than the Royalists.
- The New Model Army had better leadership – Fairfax and Cromwell were inspirational and effective leaders.

Checkpoint

Challenge

C1 Give details to justify each of the three statements made in the Summary above?

If you are not sure, go back to the text in this section to find the details you need.

Recap: c1500–c1700: Warfare and English society in the early modern period

Draw a table showing continuity and change in Warfare c1500–1700 based on the one below. Draw larger coloured boxes and use these to note down evidence for each of the examples of Continuity, Change, Trend / Turning Point, Factors and Consequences in the table. The evidence will be detailed information like statistics, a key battle, a new law, etc.

Change and continuity
Change
Pikes and muskets used together
Tudor militia system
Artillery could be decisive in battle
A fully professional standing army
Armies got much larger in the late 17th century
Matchlock muskets and pikes replaced by flintlocks and bayonets
Continuity
Officers usually from the upper classes
Took a long time for new ideas to be adopted, e.g. change from longbow to musket

Patterns of change
Trend or turning point
Trend Move from longbows to muskets
Turning point Firepower beats mass pike units
Turning point Field artillery plays a significant part in battles
Trend Development of the bayonet

Factors affecting warfare
Factor affecting change
New ideas (usually from Europe)
Developments in technology
Government
Communications
Attitudes
Consequence for civilians
Many men forced to serve in the army
Civil Wars lead to much more damage, higher taxes, and more plunder and free quarter, compared to earlier wars

Exam-style question, Section B

'The creation of the New Model Army (1645) was a turning point in the development of a standing army in Britain in the period c1500–c1755'.

How far do you agree? Explain your answer.

You may use the following in your answer:

- two regiments survive
- volunteers.

You **must** also use information of your own. **16 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis and evaluation of change. Make sure you say what makes a turning point, and consider both sides of the question – including why it **might not** be a turning point as well as why it **was**.

It is vital you use extra information, not just the two things in the question.

Writing historically: selecting vocabulary

The best historical writing uses carefully selected vocabulary to express ideas formally, clearly and precisely.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you will understand how to:

- select nouns and verbs that can help you to express your ideas clearly and precisely
- use expanded noun phrases to help you convey information more clearly and briefly.

Definitions

Noun: a word that names an object, idea, person, place, etc, e.g. 'Cromwell', 'king', 'castle'.

Noun phrase: a phrase including a noun and any words that modify its meaning, e.g. 'the king of England', 'the English Civil War'.

Verb: words that describe actions ('Parliament defeated Charles'), incidents ('The battle ended') and situations ('Charles was king for 24 years').

Modifiers: words that add to the meaning of verbs and nouns, e.g. adverbs and adjectives ('London was heavily protected by strong stone walls').

Clause: a group of words, or unit of meaning, that contains a verb and can form part, or all, of a sentence, e.g. 'Cromwell defeated the Royalists'.

How can I add detail to my writing?

Explain why the flintlock and the bayonet replaced the pike and matchlock between 1600 and 1700. (12 marks)

1. Look at the first sentence of one response to the above exam-style question. The key nouns, verbs and modifiers in the sentence have been highlighted:

Getting rid of the old pikes allowed leaders to use all their men to fire guns.

a. How could you improve this sentence? Would you add more detail? Or would you express the same information more formally and precisely? Or both?

b. Rewrite the sentence using more precise, accurate nouns, verbs and modifiers. You could use the thesaurus extracts below to help you.

getting rid of	old	allowed	leaders	men	fire guns
replacing scrapping abandoning	obsolete archaic outdated	assisted enabled facilitated	generals officers commanders	forces soldiers troops	add firepower fire muskets/rifles use firearms

2. Now look at the next two sentences from the same response.

Using pikes to stop enemy horsemen meant some men could not carry guns. Men with bayonets were better because they could fire and still stop horses.

a. Identify any nouns, verbs or modifiers that could be replaced with more formal and precise choices.

b. For each noun, verb and modifier identified, note down two or three alternative choices.

c. Rewrite the sentences above, choosing more formal, precise nouns, verbs and modifiers.

How can I make the information in my writing clear and concise?

One way in which you can make your writing more concise is by using expanded **noun phrases**.

Compare these two versions of the same sentence from a response to the exam-style question on the previous page.

> *Pikemen took a long time to train and this made them hard to replace.*
>
> *Pikemen's lengthy training made them hard to replace.*

This clause has been condensed to form this expanded noun phrase.

The second sentence expresses the same ideas and information much more clearly and concisely.

3. Look at another sentence from this response to the exam-style question on the previous page:

> *The introduction of the socket bayonet allowed a musket to fire with the bayonet attached.*

   a. Experiment with different ways of rewriting the sentence by condensing the highlighted clause to form an expanded noun phrase.

   b. Compare your rewritten sentences with the original version. Which version do you prefer? Write a sentence or two explaining your decision.

Did you notice?

4. In the examples above, a clause has been condensed into an expanded noun phrase by **nominalising** the **verb** – turning the verb into a noun. Copy and complete the table below, turning the verbs into nouns. The first two have been done to help you.

Verbs	Nouns
to train	*training*
to introduce	*introduction*
to create	
to submit	
to accept	

Improving an answer

5. Now look at the next section of this response:

> *The flintlock was better than the matchlock. It had simpler bits to fire and that saved the man firing it time. The match was ditched and this created a better weapon. It also meant carrying less stuff.*

   a. Rewrite the response, choosing more formal, precise nouns, verbs and modifiers.

   b. Now experiment with different ways of rewriting the response, by condensing some clauses into expanded noun phrases to make the response clearer and more concise. Start by looking at each verb and seeing whether you can convert it to a noun.

   c. Look carefully at all the different versions of this response you have written. Which version is the most clear and concise? Write a sentence or two explaining your decision.

03

c1700–c1900: Warfare and British society in 18th and 19th centuries

Warfare in 1700 featured armies that marched or rode on horseback to war in brightly coloured uniforms, fighting with muskets, bayonets and heavy, cumbersome cannon.

By 1900, armies were in better camouflaged brown or grey uniforms and the decline of cavalry continued. Rifles and machine guns had replaced muskets. Long-distance artillery or battlefield light artillery pounded the enemy, and armies went to war by steamship or railway.

But these changes did not occur equally over the whole period of 1700–1900.

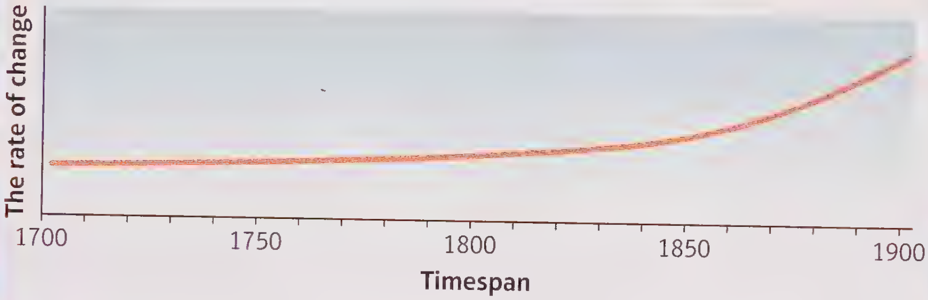


Figure 3.1 The pattern of change, 1700–1900.

- Between 1700 and 1850, **change was slow and limited**. There were a few changes, but long periods of continuity when most things stayed the same.
- In contrast, 1850–1900 was a period of **rapid change**, mainly because of government actions and improvements in science, technology and communication.

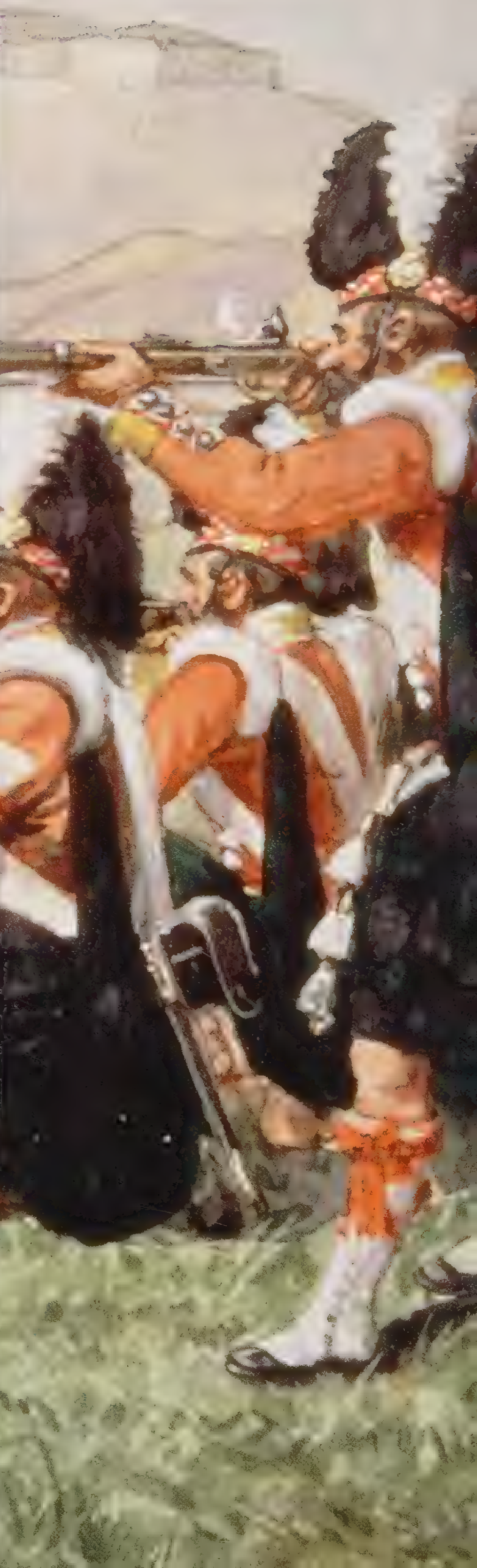
Two case studies illustrate the dual nature of change, 1700–1900.

- The Battle of Waterloo in 1815 was typical of the period 1700–1850, when little changed.
- The Battle of Balaclava in 1854 showed some features of warfare typical of the period 1700–1850; but it also showed signs of the big changes to come in the period 1850–1900.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this chapter, you will:

- know and understand what changed in warfare and what stayed the same, 1700–1900
- understand the impact of these changes
- understand why change was so slow, 1700–1850, and so rapid, 1850–1900
- understand the impact of factors like public attitudes, industry, science and communications.



3.1 The nature of warfare, 1700–1850

Learning outcomes

- Understand changes in the composition of the army in this period.
- Understand the impact of new weaponry, such as field artillery.

Change and continuity

1700–1850 was mainly a period of continuity (lack of change) with a few examples of change.

The size of the army

Throughout this period, there was a **standing army** – a permanent, paid army that was not disbanded in peacetime. On average, the army was about 50,000 men during peacetime.

- In 1700, this army was **small** compared to those of other European nations, like France.
- The army **grew during wars**, but returned (almost) to pre-war size when peace returned.
- By 1850, the British Army was larger. The overall trend was **slow growth**.

The composition of the army

Infantry remained the dominant part of the army throughout this period. The trend was for infantry to grow in importance. It formed about 75% of the army in 1700 and grew slowly to about 80% by 1850.

Cavalry were about 20% of the army in 1700 and 15% by 1850. The trend was slow decline.

Artillery remained about 5% of the army.

British Army in 1808 – during the Napoleonic wars	
Infantry	170,000
Cavalry	30,000
Artillery	14,000

Weapons

Infantry used, as their basic weapon, the **'Brown Bess'** musket. It came into service in 1715 and was used for over 130 years. About eight million were made during this time. The Brown Bess was muzzle*-loaded and fired a lead ball that weighed about 30 grams. It was effective up to about 100 metres. For close combat, it continued to be fitted with a bayonet with a 45 cm blade.

Key term

Muzzle*

The front end, or mouth, of the barrel of a handgun or cannon.

Cavalry mainly used swords. Some, known as dragoons, had firearms. Dragoons could dismount and fight on foot.

Artillery used cannon with a range of about 500 metres. They used cannonballs against walled defences and large bodies of infantry. They could also fire **grape shot** (bags of small metal balls) or **canisters** (tin or wooden containers filled with metal balls) to spray infantry with deadly shot.

Activity

Divide into two groups. One group should list aspects of warfare that changed, 1700–1850. The other group should list things that stayed much the same. Discuss the lists.

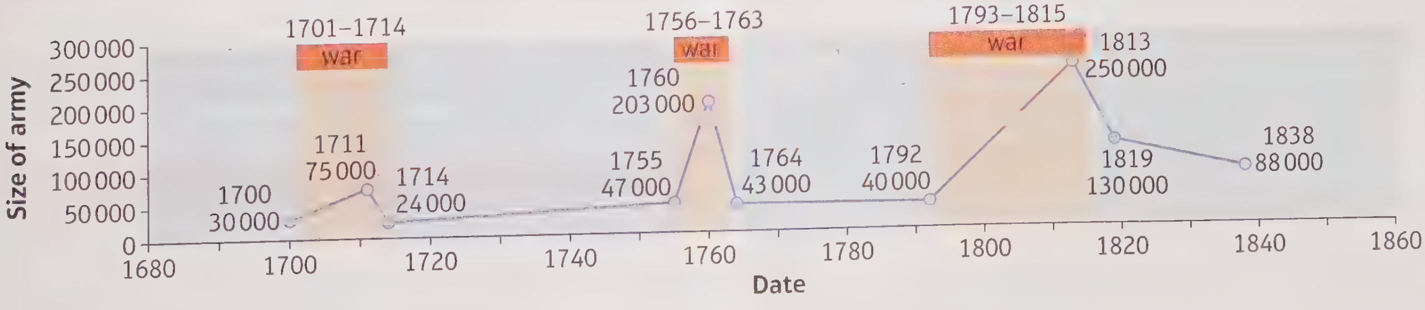


Figure 3.2 The pattern of change in the size of the army, 1700–1850.

Changes in weapons

Light field artillery

Improvements in **industry** and **technology** caused some changes in artillery 1700–1850. In 1700, a typical cannon weighed over a ton. With its carriage and ammunition, it weighed almost four tons – the weight of an elephant! Because cannon were so heavy and difficult to transport, they could only be used in sieges against fixed targets, like castles or fortified towns. They were too heavy to be moved around during the battle. They had to be pulled into one place and fired from there for the whole battle.

But this changed after 1700. During 1700–1850, Britain was going through a period called the **Industrial revolution**; innovation in some industries enabled them to grow rapidly. One of these industries was the iron industry. In 1720, Britain produced 25 tons of iron; in 1790, 70,000 tons; and, by 1850, two million tons. Iron was much more plentiful and cheaper. As a result, industrialists working in the iron industry were able to experiment with new ways of using iron to make artillery.

Source A

A 19th-century illustration showing British Royal Horse Artillery using field guns during the 18th century. It shows gun carriages carrying ammunition. The cannon itself, could be hitched, pointing backwards, onto the back of the carriage for moving around the battlefield.

- **John 'Iron-Mad' Wilkinson** was a pioneer of Britain's iron industry. In the 1740s, he began to make thinner cannon barrels out of a solid piece of metal. In 1774, he patented a method of boring out the width of a cannon barrel with an accuracy of under a millimetre. All this meant lighter, more powerful and more accurate cannon.
- Later, more expensive, but even lighter **bronze** cannon, with lighter carriages, became more common.

Light field artillery could be quickly pulled around a battlefield by horses and used in a variety of ways (see page 73). This is a clear example of how industry can enable change in warfare.

Strategy

Limited warfare continued to be the norm for Britain throughout most of the period 1700–1850. Raids, skirmishes and sieges remained more common than full-scale battles. This was because:

- Rulers sometimes led armies. For example, George II led the British Army at the Battle of Dettingen in 1743. Rulers sometimes avoided battles, since a defeat could mean their own death and the end of a dynasty. They preferred more limited campaigns involving sieges or raids.
- Muskets and artillery meant that battles caused huge losses of troops. Britain and her allies lost 24,000 men at the Battle of Malplaquet in 1709, for example. Britain's army was small during peacetime (only about 20,000 men in 1720); it clearly could not afford such losses.
- Transport and communications were slow. The first news of the British victory at Waterloo in 1815 arrived in London by homing pigeon! So long wars and big armies were difficult to manage.
- Britain's strategy was to keep its army small (see page 71) and use other strategies to wage war.
- Britain relied upon the English Channel and the Royal Navy to protect it from invasion.
- Abroad, Britain used its wealth to pay subsidies* to its allies, so that they could raise armies to fight alongside the British Army.

Key term

Subsidies*

Sums of money given to help pay for something expensive, such as warfare.

Tactics

Though strategy changed little, there was an important change of tactics, 1700–1850.

Infantry tactics

Lines, columns and squares. Infantry remained the dominant force on the battlefield throughout this period.

As they had done for centuries, infantry usually formed lines, parallel to the enemy, and slowly advanced. There were two changes.

1. **Musket fire improved.** Traditionally, the front line would fire, then reload, while lines behind them came forward and fired. Four-deep lines were normal in 1700. But, improvements in loading times meant that, by about 1760, longer, two-deep lines could be used, each line firing at 20-second intervals. Then, as before, on reaching the enemy, hand-to-hand combat, using bayonets, decided the outcome.
2. **Marching improved.** Traditionally, infantry walked together in groups, rather like a crowd moving. From about 1760, English armies introduced **rhythmic marching** (marching in step with each other). For the first time, infantry could be moved quickly and precisely around the battlefield, and they could change formation quickly for different purposes.

- In attack, infantry used **lines** (parallel to the enemy) or **columns** (narrow arrow-shaped formations) to punch through enemy lines.
- In defence, infantry quickly re-formed into **squares**, not unlike schiltrons (see page 19), so that they could defend themselves against enemy cavalry attacks. Wellington used squares to defend his troops against Napoleon's cavalry attacks at Waterloo in 1815.

These rapid manoeuvres by infantry made battles more complex than before and gave opportunities for generals, like Wellington, to outwit their enemies.

Activities ?

1. Look at Figure 3.2. Roughly sketch your own version of this graph. Add lines to show the patterns of change for: the composition of armies; muskets; field artillery; strategy; infantry tactics; the importance of cavalry. What does your sketch tell you?
2. How far was 1700–1850 a period of change?

Artillery tactics

Lighter field guns, pulled by horses, were an essential part of these new fluid battlefields. Before, heavy guns were just positioned on the battlefield and remained static. Lighter guns allowed more flexible battlefield tactics. They could be moved constantly during the battle to:

- sit in front of infantry to defend lines
- withdraw to safety inside infantry squares
- move to high ground to bombard the enemy.

Wellington had 216 guns at Waterloo in 1815.

Cavalry tactics

Cavalry were another part of this fluid battlefield.

- They were becoming too vulnerable to muskets to be used much in frontal attacks. In the early 1700s, the Duke of Marlborough often used cavalry as shock troops; by the early 1800s, the Duke of Wellington rarely did. Overall, their numbers continued to decline.
- But, cavalry could be moved quickly around battlefields for scouting and harassing the enemy, and for skirmishing with enemy cavalry.

Factors affecting change

Several factors affected the rate of change, 1700–1850.

- **Social attitudes** slowed change by keeping the size of the army small. A larger army cost more money. This meant higher taxes. Also, people considered a large army a danger to political freedom. It could be used to impose the will of the government on the people by force.
- **Political attitudes** slowed change. In Britain, people looked on during the French Revolution (1789) and saw how change could threaten the power and wealth of the upper classes. This made Britain's ruling classes nervous about all change – including changes in the army.
- **Individuals** sometimes affected change. The Duke of Wellington was a successful general, but, when he was in charge of Britain's army after 1815, he opposed any attempts to modernise the army. He became an obstacle to change.
- **Industrialisation** caused some change – like the work of John Wilkinson. But the industrial revolution had just started. It was not until about 1850 that industry had a big impact on warfare.

3.2 The experience of warfare, 1700–1850

Learning outcomes

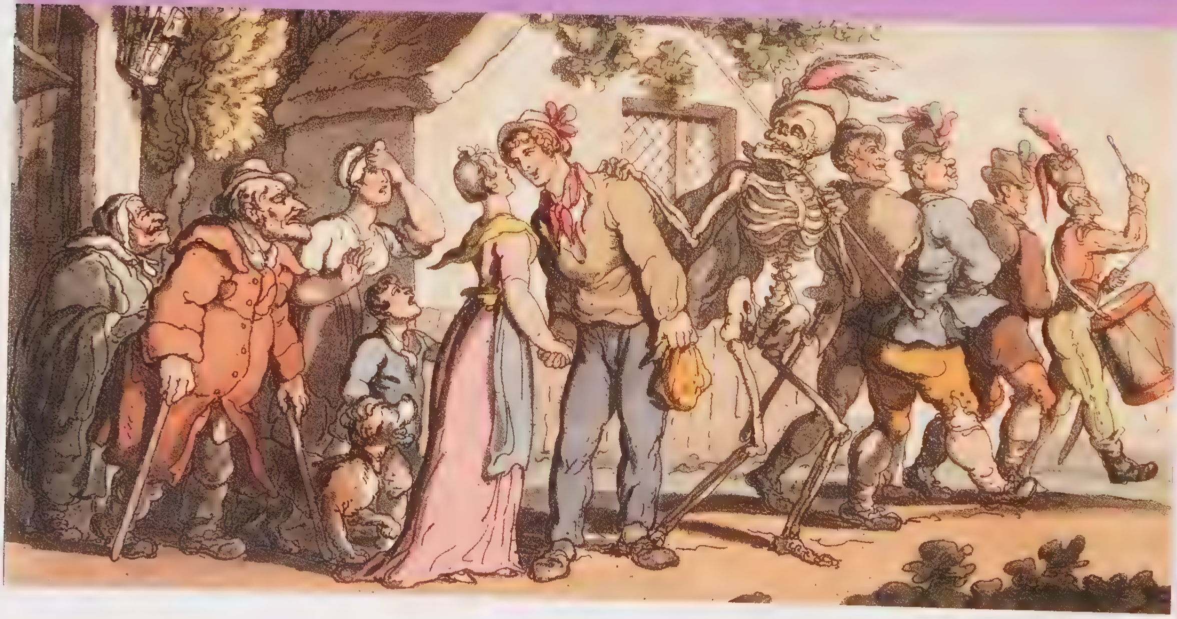
- Understand attempts to professionalise the army and changes to recruitment.
- Understand the impact of war on British civilians in this period.

Recruitment

By 1700, Britain had a paid standing army. Over the next 150 years, there was not much change in the way it was recruited.

Officers	Officers continued to be young men from wealthy families whose families bought commissions. • The higher the rank, the higher the price; so the very highest ranks were often only available to men from the nobility. • Many officers bought commissions for the status, lifestyle and a long-term income. This made the quality of officers very unreliable.
Other ranks	Men could sign up for 'short' enlistments of 8–12 years. Or they could sign up for life; this normally meant an enlistment of 21 years. But, recruitment was difficult; for most of this period, the army failed to recruit up to its permitted size. • Pay was meant to be the main incentive. But pay remained 8d per day, 1660–1792. This is equivalent to about £3 per day today. It was less than a labourer's pay and, from this, a soldier had to pay for food, lodgings in peacetime, and equipment. Conditions at home were poor: on campaign, they were even worse. • Bounties, typically £3 (worth about £250 today), were sometimes paid to entice men to sign up for life. • Sometimes men were given drinks at an inn and then enlisted 'under the influence'. • During wartime, criminals and debtors were released early from prison if they agreed to join the army. During the War of American Independence (1776–83), three whole regiments (about 7,000 men in total) were raised in this way. All this meant that the quality of recruits was poor; desertions were very common; and officers resorted to very harsh discipline to keep control of their troops.

Source A



An engraving from 1815, showing the skeleton of Death leading a recruit away. It was by Thomas Rowlandson, who produced illustrations for books. Many of these drawings were critical of injustice in society.

Colonels' regiments

Expanding the army was unpopular with the public. So when governments wanted to create new regiments, rather than upset public opinion by recruiting themselves, they sometimes paid large lump sums to a senior officer to recruit, clothe and equip a whole regiment. The officers often created their regiments as cheaply as possible, to make a profit. These colonels' regiments in the 1700s were similar to captains' indentures in the 1300s and 1400s (see page 28).

1757 Militia Act

In 1757, a Militia Act was passed. Every parish in England and Wales made lists of men aged 18–50; then ballots were held to pick men from the lists to serve for five years in the local militia. The militia protected the country against invasion and could be used to boost the size of the army during war. In 1798, during the wars against France, the militia grew to 118,000 men.

This was an overhaul of a system, used as long before as the 1200s, called the Assize of Arms (see page 15).

Training

Several attempts were made to improve training during this period – but without much effect.

- In 1708, the Duke of Marlborough issued a manual of tactics for officers called *New Exercise of Firelocks and Bayonets*. It was not widely used.
- Between 1728 and 1851, George II issued a series of *Regulations* for the whole army to use. But the *Regulations* were often ignored.
- In 1741, the **Royal Military Academy** was established at Woolwich to teach gunnery. This was a useful, if limited, addition.

The wars against France in the 1790s brought some improvements.

- Standard drills for manoeuvring troops (1792), cavalry (1795), and the use of swords and rifles (1797) were issued. But all were resisted by independent-minded officers.
- In 1800, the **Royal Military College** was established at Sandhurst to improve training of existing officers. In 1802, a Junior Department was added for cadets who were training to be officers.

Attitudes in society were preventing change. The main problem was that officers thought that weapons training and tactics were simple things that officers could be left to arrange themselves. So, despite sporadic attempts, the training of officers and troops had improved very little by 1850.

Activity

Read Source B. Why do you think things were so bad?

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain **one** way in which recruitment to the army was similar in the 1300s to the 1700s.

4 marks

Exam tip

This question tests knowledge and understanding of similarity, features and characteristics.

1. The answer should **identify** an example of a similarity: e.g. payment of troops, higher ranks from noble families, colonels' regiments and captains' indentures.
2. The answer must **analyse** the similarity, comparing the old and new: for example, the monopoly of higher ranks was similar in the feudal 1300s and the 1700s (commissions).
3. The answer should give **evidence** or **examples** for the statements it makes: e.g. the answer could give details of how higher ranks were chosen.

Source B

Extract from comments written by a senior officer in the British forces in the Low Countries, 1793–95.

Out of 15 regiments of cavalry and 26 of infantry, 21 are commanded literally by boys or idiots… we do not know how to set a picquet [lookouts] or instruct a sentinel [guard]; and, as to moving, God forbid that we should attempt it within 3 miles of an enemy.

Impact of war on civilians

The impact of warfare on civilians was not serious, nor did it change much, during this period.

Civilian deaths: The English Channel and British Navy protected Britain from invasion and there was very little fighting on British soil in this period, so the direct impact of war on British civilians was minor.

Recruitment: The Militia Act was widely disliked. There were riots in 1757, when people feared that the militiamen might be made to serve in the regular army abroad.

Requisitioning: The army had no transport of its own; it relied upon requisitioning (from civilians) any wagons it needed and animals to pull them.

Army accommodation: In 1700, there were no army barracks (bases with accommodation). When stationed at home, soldiers had to find lodgings. As the size of the army grew, this caused problems: large numbers of rowdy soldiers disrupted businesses in towns and cities and upset local people. From about 1800, barracks became more numerous, so this problem subsided.

Taxation in peacetime: The cost of the army rose from about £1 million in 1700 to about £8 million in 1836. But the country was more prosperous by 1836 (on average, people had more money). Also, there were only six million people in Britain in 1700, but there were about 26 million by 1836; so there were many more taxpayers to share the cost. Bearing all this in mind, the burden caused by the extra cost of the army is likely to have been small.

Taxation in wartime: The burden of extra taxation was worse during wartime. At the height of the wars against France (1793–1815), the cost of the army rose to £25 million per year. The total cost of the war was almost £550 million between 1805 and 1815 alone.

Activities

1. Draw a spider diagram, with 'Recruitment' in the centre. At the end of the spider 'legs', draw boxes containing the features of recruitment, 1700–1850.
2. Draw a line graph to represent the pattern of change in army training, 1700–1850. Explain it.
3. Compare the impact on civilians of war 1700–1850 with the periods 1250–1500 and 1500–1750.

Summary

- The British standing army remained small in peacetime; but size and cost went up sharply during wars.
- Infantry dominated army numbers; and infantry lines, columns and squares dominated army tactics.
- Cavalry declined slowly in tactical importance, but adopted a broader role.
- Artillery became more flexible in battle, with light artillery field guns.
- Weapons, strategy, tactics, recruitment, training and the impact on civilians changed little.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Describe, in detail, the changes in the size, cost and composition of the army, 1700–1850.

S2 Describe the features of army recruitment and training, 1700–1850.

S3 Describe the impact of warfare on civilians, 1700–1850.

Challenge

C1 Explain how the rate of change was affected during this time by: social attitudes, political attitudes, individuals, and the beginnings of industrialisation.

C2 Compare the impact of warfare on civilians 1700–1900 with the impact on civilians 1250–1700, pointing out where the impact was similar and where it was different.

If you are not confident about any of these, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

3.3 The nature of warfare, 1850–1900

Learning outcomes

- Understand changes in the composition of armies and the decline of the cavalry.
- Understand the impact of new weaponry, such as rifles, bullets and improved artillery.
- Understand the impact on war of industrialisation.

Change and continuity

The size of the army

Britain fought no major wars between the Crimean War (1854–56) and the Boer War (1899–1902). But, as the British Empire grew, more troops were needed abroad, so the growth of the army accelerated.

Size of the British Army	
1849	115,000
1869	135,000
1899 (pre-war)	250,000

The composition of the army

There was no such rapid change in the composition of the army. Cavalry continued, even though new weapons, like rifles and machine guns, made it very vulnerable. When armies were on the move, it remained important for scouting – to give early warning of the presence of the enemy. (See page 80.)

- In 1854, the army sent to the Crimean War had five infantry divisions and one cavalry division.
- In 1914, the army sent to the First World War had four infantry and two cavalry divisions.

Changes in weapons

Improvements in **science, technology and industry** caused a series of changes in weapons.

Improved cannon

- **Steel** cannon were more durable than cannon made of bronze and less likely to crack or explode than iron.
- **Breech*-loading** cannon were quicker to reload. Whereas muzzle-loaded cannon fired two rounds per minute, breech-loaders fired ten rounds per minute.
- **Cannon with rifled* barrels** were introduced. Whereas field cannon with smooth barrels had a range of a few hundred metres, rifled field artillery could fire up to five km.
- **Recoiling** field guns were the norm by 1890. Before, firing caused the whole cannon to move. It had to be re-aimed after every shot. Barrels that recoiled meant the cannon itself stayed in position, allowing quicker refiring.
- **Percussion shells** began to be used with British artillery by 1900. These were filled with chemicals that exploded the shell into deadly fragments on impact.
- **Smokeless** powder was used by the 1890s. This meant that smoke did not impair aiming and the location of the cannon was not given away.
- **More powerful cannon** were made. By 1914, some cannon could fire shells 80 km.

Key terms

Breech*

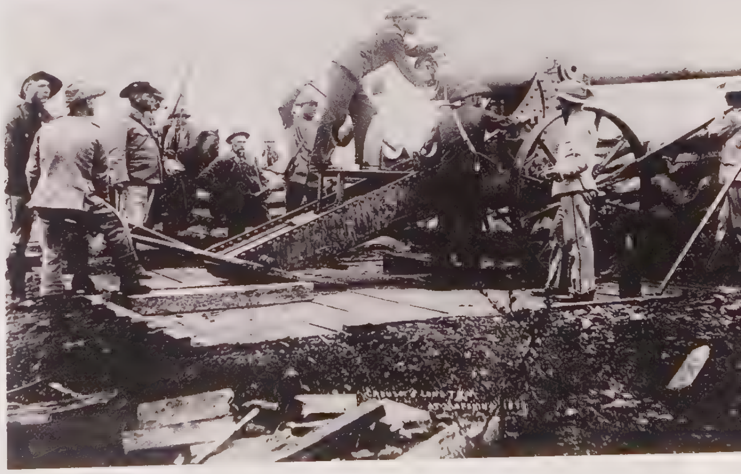
The back end of the barrel of a firearm or cannon.

Rifled*

Spiral grooves on the inside of barrels make shot spin, and fly straighter and further.

Source A

Long-distance artillery was used in the Boer War, 1899–1902. This gun was called 'Long Tom' and was used by the Boers against Britain in the siege of Ladysmith in 1899. It weighed five tons and had a range of 10 km. Notice that it is breech-loading and has a recoiling barrel.



Rifles

Early rifles – muskets with rifled barrels – were invented in the 16th century. But they were difficult to load, because the rifling made it difficult to force shot down the barrel. From about 1850 onwards, a series of improvements made rifles more effective.

- **Minié bullets** were invented in 1847. These small bullets were simply dropped individually into the barrel. On firing, the bullets expanded, allowing contact with the rifling. Used with the **Minié rifle**, this made the bullets fly further; they were effective to 300 metres.
- **Conical bullets**, long and torpedo shaped, were made, which fired ever further.
- **Percussion bullets** followed. When the trigger released a hammer, it detonated a percussion cap at the base of the bullet, propelling it out of the rifle. Percussion bullets ended reliance on powder, flints and sparks. They made loading easier and more reliable in damp weather.
- **Breech-loading** – pushing bullets into the bottom of the barrel through the side of the rifle, made reloading four times quicker than muskets. In 1866, a Frenchman, **Chassepot**, created a breech-loaded rifle accurate to 1,500 metres.
- **Magazines** of bullets meant that several bullets could be loaded at one time. In 1888, British infantry were issued with the **Lee-Metford** magazine rifle, which was accurate up to 1.5 km.

Interpretation 1

A comment on the effect of rifles from *The Cambridge History of Warfare*, edited by Geoffrey Parker (2005).

> …well aimed fire from [rifles] slaughtered the Russians, well before the British came within range of the enemy muskets. Victory at Alma [in the Crimean War] reflected superior allied technology rather than training or discipline.

Machine guns

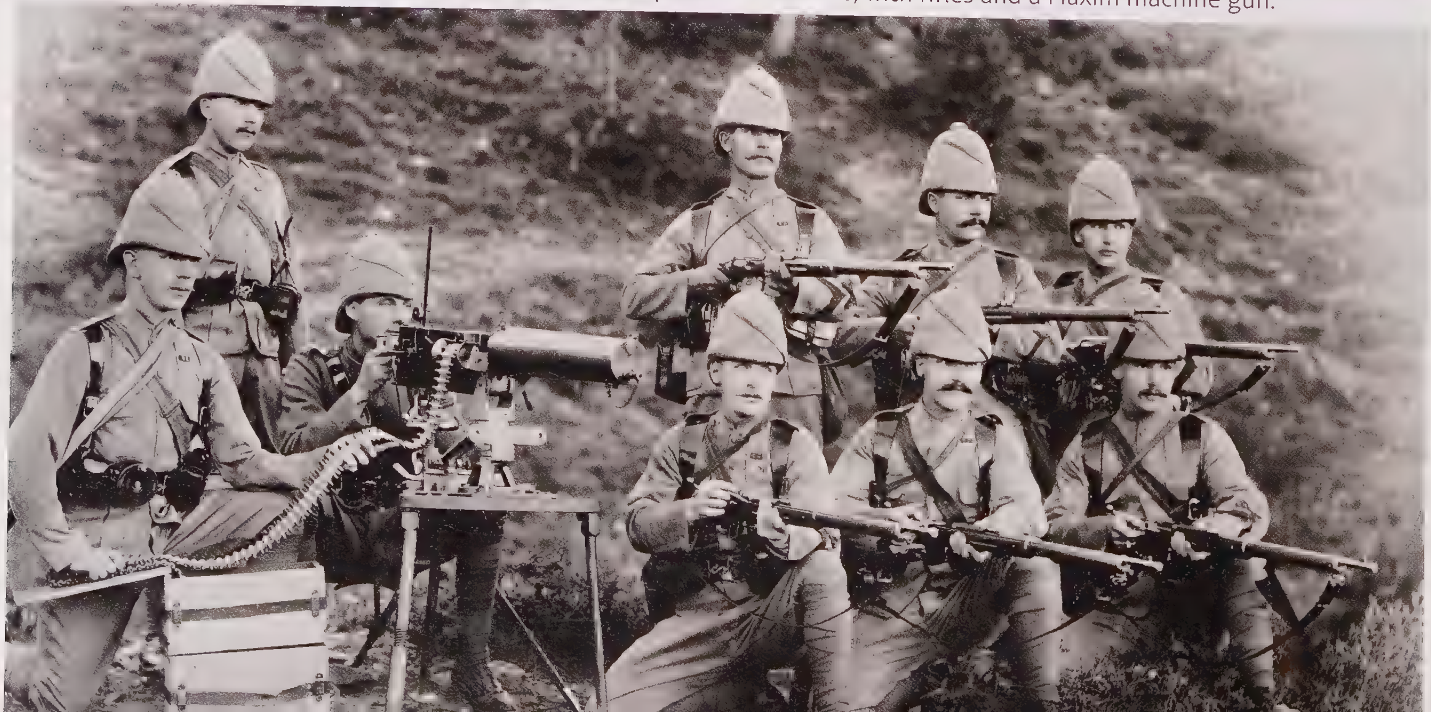
From the 1860s, the first machine guns appeared. The **Gatling gun** and the ***mitrailleuse*** were cannon with 25 rifle barrels, which rotated inside the cannon barrel. They fired 150 rounds per minute up to 2,000 metres – but they were very heavy.

Maxim machine guns were lighter (only about 20 kg) and could be easily moved into position by men. They were fed bullets from a belt and fired 500 rounds per minute. They were adopted by the British Army in 1889.

However, machine guns had their main impact for British armies after 1900.

Source B

A photograph, clearly posed, of The King's Royal Rifle Corps in India in 1898, with rifles and a Maxim machine gun.



Factors affecting change

Industrialisation

Since the late 18th century, improvements in industry had been accelerating in most of Europe, with Britain leading the way; this is known as the industrial revolution. By the middle of the 19th century, metal production was much improved. For example, in 1855, **Henry Bessemer** patented a way of mass-producing cheap steel. It reduced the cost from £60 per ton to £7. More, cheaper metals made it possible to make better, cheaper weapons.

Mass production of standardised parts

One aspect of the industrial revolution was factory production lines, using machines to mass produce identical parts very cheaply. This made weapons more reliable and cheaper to make. **The Royal Small Arms Factory**, at Enfield in London, made rifles. In 1856, they built a new machine shop manned by 1,000 workers who could make 1,750 rifles per week. By 1900, they were mass-producing the famous **Lee-Enfield** rifle.

Science

Scientific progress also improved weapons.

- Developing **fulminate of mercury** created the explosive that made percussion bullets possible.
- **Alfred Nobel's** invention of the chemical **nitroglycerine** allowed smokeless powder for rifles and cannon. This meant that they could be fired without the smoke giving away their position and attracting fire from the opposition.

Extend your knowledge

At the 1898 Battle of Omdurman in North Africa, 8,000 British soldiers, aided by 17,000 supporting troops, were attacked by 60,000 Sudanese tribesmen.

- The Sudanese were armed with spears and swords. They also had captured rifles, pistols and machine guns. But they were not trained in their use, and had little ammunition.
- The British were armed with Lee-Metford and Lee-Enfield rifles, firing ten rounds per minute almost 3,000 metres. They also had 40 Maxim machine guns and 50 pieces of field artillery.

The new weapons prevailed. In five hours, the British lost 500 men. The Sudanese lost 11,000.

The role of the individual

It takes ambitious individuals to turn possible improvements into actual ones.

- In Britain, **George Armstrong** owned an engineering company in Newcastle that made cranes and bridges. When the American Civil War broke out, in 1861, he saw the opportunity to make a profit by producing cannon to sell to armies in the USA. He experimented with several designs before producing a cannon that could fire a 70 kg shell, ten km. He became a pioneer of breech-loading, rifled cannon, and the **'Armstrong gun'** became a feature of the British Army.
- **Hiram Maxim** was an American inventor who moved to London in 1881. Having previously invented curling tongs for hair, and filaments for electric bulbs, he turned his attention to weapons. In 1884, he invented the **Maxim gun**; a machine gun that used the recoil of a fired bullet to load the next bullet into the firing chamber. Doing this continually, enabled his Maxim gun to fire a belt of 500 bullets before reloading. He set up the Maxim Gun Company and, by 1890, six European countries had adopted the Maxim gun in their armies.

Spiralling change

When industrialists improved weapons in one country, this gave their army an advantage. This caused armies in other countries to improve their weapons. And these new weapons made other countries want even better ones. And so it continued. It became an ongoing, self-perpetuating 'cycle' of change. The pattern of change sometimes works like this: change causes even more change. This is called 'spiralling change'.

Activities

1. In a pair, write a list of improvements in weapons, 1850–1900. Add one key detail to each improvement. Use your list to test each other on the key details.
2. Consider Henry Bessemer, Alfred Nobel and George Armstrong. Use a search engine, or library, to research a three-line pen-picture to explain why each one was important to change in warfare.
3. Draw a diagram to show what a 'spiralling change' is. Write a few lines underneath to explain what it shows about:
   a the pattern of change
   b causation.

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain why the pace changed in the 19th century. You may use the following in your answer.

- industrialisation
- science.

You must also use information of your own. **12 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis and evaluation of causation.

1. The answer should include the candidate's **own information**: e.g. the role of key individuals could be included.
2. The answer must be written as a structured **argument**: setting out a series of reasons; explaining each reason in turn; and making a case for it as a cause of change in weapons.
3. The answer should give **evidence** or **examples** for each of the reasons given.

Tactics

The **technology** that improved weapons 1850–1900 also changed tactics on the battlefield. Rifles and machine guns dramatically increased the **power of defence**. This meant that tactics such as cavalry charges, or infantry lines advancing on the enemy, became very dangerous. The enemy could just sit in defensive positions and destroy the oncoming troops with long-distance, rapid, small-arms fire.

Interpretation 2

A comment on the factors affecting warfare from *The Cambridge History of Warfare*, edited by Geoffrey Parker (2005).

> Advances in weaponry that had marked the [Crimean] war's conduct at the tactical level underlined that technology and science were now crucial to battlefield success. The side that recognised and utilized such changes in its military forces would enjoy an important advantage over its opponents.

Remarkably, armies all over Europe were slow to learn this lesson about tactics.

- In 1854, at the Battle of Alma, British infantry used their rifles to defeat massed columns of Russian troops, before they were in range of the Russian smooth-bored muskets. Then, at the Battle of Balaclava, British rifles drove off a Russian cavalry attack (see page 92).
- But, only weeks later, at the Battle of Inkerman, Russian commanders sent 25,000 troops to advance on 7,500 British defenders. The British, armed with Minié rifles, successfully fought off the attack. They lost only 2,000 men: the Russians lost 11,000, in one day.

Generals continued to send infantry into the face of overwhelming fire up to 1900 and beyond.

The decline of cavalry

After 1850, cavalry became useless as a form of shock attack. The charge of the Light Brigade during the Battle of Balaclava showed this as early as 1854 (see pages 92–94). However, they remained a part of the British Army, for two main reasons:

- They were used for other roles, like scouting.
- **Attitudes in society.** The army was conservative and valued tradition. Many leaders of the army had been in the cavalry and kept cavalry for emotional, illogical reasons.

Interpretation 3

A comment on the cavalry from *Cassell's World History of Warfare*, Herwig, Archer, Travers and Ferris (Cassell 2003).

> Cavalry was still regarded as the premier branch of the service. But the [wars of the 1870s] would reveal its basic choice to be between suicide and idleness.

Strategy

Governments changed their war strategies.

- They realised that these new weapons meant that the strongest armies would be **the largest armies, with the most modern weapons**. The size and cost of armies rose rapidly (see page 77).
- Also, strategists realised that armies could now operate **further from home**. Two factors that made this possible were: long-distance **transport** and better **communications**.

Steam-powered transport

- **On land**, troops moved 15 times faster by **rail** than by marching; and they arrived fresh, not tired. Wagons had moved supplies ten miles (around 15 km) per day: steam-powered railway trains could move them 20 miles per *hour*. The British also used the first ever military railway – a 25-mile (40 km) track from Balaclava to the British front line. It could deliver 240 tons of food and supplies each day.
- **At sea**, sail ships had averaged five knots (just over 1mph). From the 1840s, **steamships**, using screw propellers, sailed twice as fast. The British requisitioned 11 steamships from a private passenger shipping company, the Cunard Line. These transported men, weapons and supplies to the Crimea in less than three weeks.

Communications

The **electric telegraph** sent messages long distances, instantly, along electric wires. The British Army first used it in the Crimean War. A Telegraph Detachment was created in the Royal Engineers. Ministers and senior officers in Britain could discuss strategy with generals on campaign. Officers in the Crimea could contact each other over a 24-mile (40 km) network connecting eight telegraph stations.

Activities

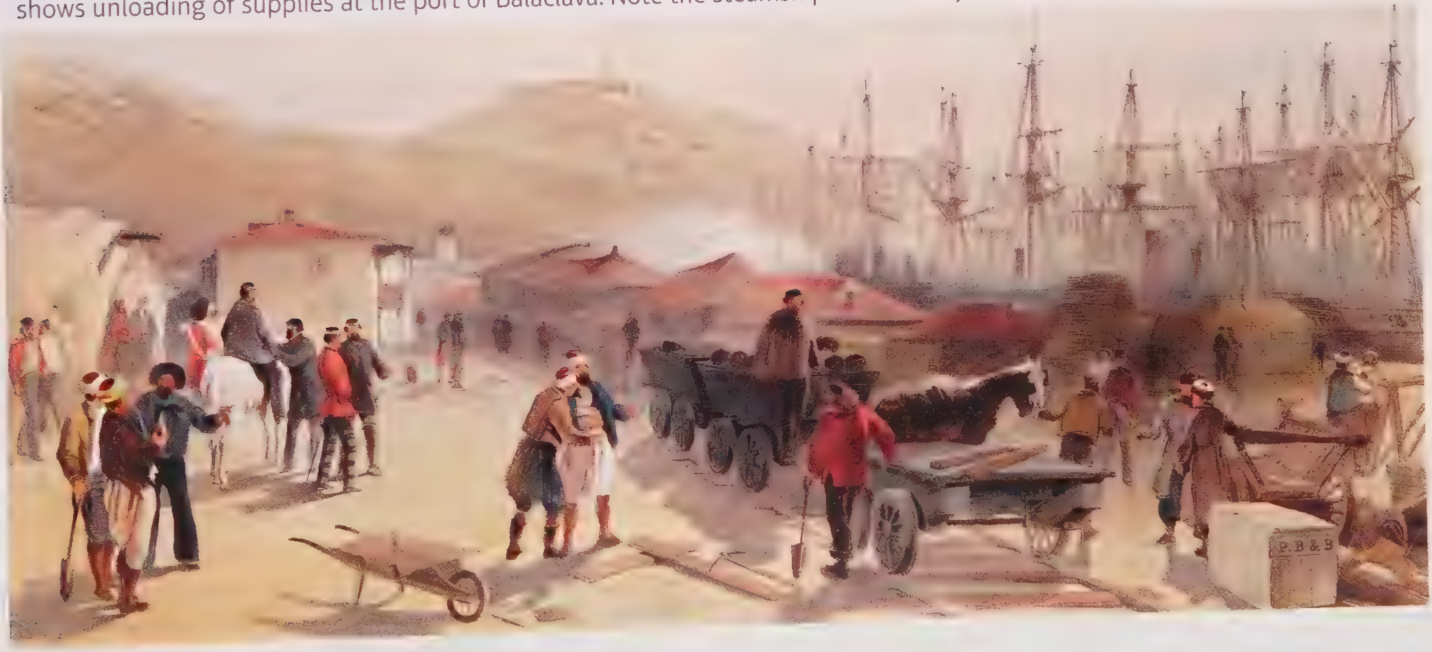
1 Play 'Change versus Continuity Tennis' around the class. One person says something in warfare, 1850–1900 that *changed*; the next person says something that **stayed the same**; then a change, then continuity. Note down each point scored and which side won.

2 Cavalry was a powerful force on the battlefield in 1250. By 1900, it was almost useless. Look back through your notes, and this book, and list the reasons for the decline of cavalry.

3 Read the Extend your knowledge feature on page 79. What does the Battle of Omdurman tell us about warfare by 1898?

Source C

A painting by William Simpson, dated 1856. Simpson's realistic paintings of the Crimean War were widely exhibited. This one shows unloading of supplies at the port of Balaclava. Note the steamships and railway.



3.4 The experience of warfare, 1850–1900

Learning outcomes

- Understand the impact on popular attitudes of the growth of reporting and photography.
- Understand changes in recruitment and training, such as Cardwell's reforms.
- Understand the impact of war on British civilians in this period.

The experience of warfare always involves people and supplies, cost, suffering and death. But since 1850, there has been one important difference: the experience of warfare has taken place in the full glare of publicity.

Newspaper reporting and photography in warfare

During previous wars, national newspapers had been few and small. But by 1850, they were booming.

- In 1815, at the time of the Battle of Waterloo, ***The Times*** newspaper sold mainly in London. Its daily sales were only 5,000 copies per day. By 1850, its **circulation** was 40,000.
- There were also more national newspapers by 1850, transported all round Britain by train. In addition to this, almost 500 new **provincial** newspapers had sprung up in towns around Britain.

So when Britain entered the Crimean War, in 1854, newspaper coverage went to a new level.

Crimean War press coverage – William Howard Russell

William Howard Russell, of *The Times*, was able to send short despatches by a series of telegraph links from the Crimea to London. It took only five hours. Longer despatches, sent by sea, took about 20 days. He sent reports from the Crimea almost daily for two years.

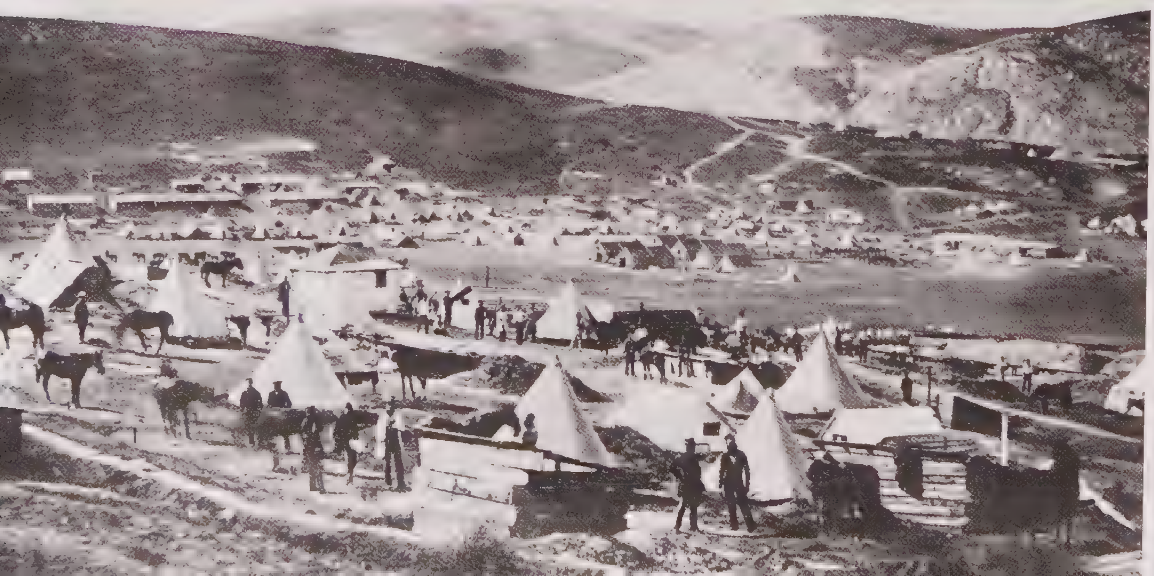
The public read his reports on all aspects of the war, on and off the battlefield. As well as describing triumphs and bravery, he gave graphic details of everything that went wrong. So the public in Britain read about failures of leadership in the army, and shortages of weapons and supplies.

Many press articles were illustrated. The *Illustrated London News* had five artists in the Crimea, including **Edward A Goodall**. Their illustrations added drama and excitement to the articles.

Crimean War photography – Roger Fenton

Roger Fenton was employed by a publisher to take photographs in the Crimea in 1855. He didn't photograph battles: he concentrated on the daily lives of soldiers. His photographs showed the poor quality of uniforms, tents and camps. They were not published daily in the newspapers. However, copies were sold and exhibited all around Britain and had a big impact on those that viewed them.

Source B



A photograph by Roger Fenton showing the camp of the 5th Dragoon Guards. Men had no huts, only tents, during the first winter in the Crimea. The average winter temperature was 4°C in the day and -4°C at night. Tents were not waterproof and, during the winter snow and rain, many troops had no change of clothes.

Source A

A despatch from William Russell, dated 25 November 1854.

It is now pouring with rain... the wind is howling over the staggering tents – trenches are turned into dykes [water-filled ditches]. In the tents the water is sometimes a foot deep. Our men have not either warm or waterproof clothing... and not a soul seems to care for their comfort, or even their lives.

Interpretation 1

Britain and Her Army 1509–1970, Correlli Barnett (1974).

Every harrowing detail of the Crimea had been seen before... What was novel about the Crimea was not the experiences of the troops or the workings of the military system, but that for the first time the home public was really aware of these things.

Boer War press coverage

Press coverage of warfare continued throughout this period. For example, from 1899–1902, Britain fought a war against the Boers in South Africa.

- Newspapers sent 300 correspondents there. *The Times* alone had 20 reporters in South Africa.
- Interest in the war boosted the circulation of the *Daily Mail* to over 500,000 copies per day.
- Music halls put on films, reconstructing the main events of the war, and people paid to watch. Moving pictures of warfare added a whole new dimension to reporting of wars and involved all of the public in warfare, even those who could not read.

Attitudes in society, affected by this press coverage, became an important cause of change to the army and warfare. (See page 86).

Recruitment

The causes of change

There were real problems with recruitment by the 1850s.

- **Shortage of troops.** During 40 years of relative peace, before 1854, actual recruitment fell short of the numbers funded. And most of the army was abroad, protecting the British Empire. Local militia had to supplement the 25,000 regular troops the War Office scraped together to fight in the Crimea.
- **Quality of troops.** The Crimean War exposed problems, especially with the quality of officers.

But although newspapers revealed these problems, this was not enough to cause real reform.

- In 1858, a Royal Commission was set up to investigate how to improve recruitment.
- But public concern about recruitment subsided. Their main outrage was centred elsewhere – concerns about medical conditions in the Crimea, for example.

So, the Royal Commission came to nothing. Other factors were needed to cause change.

- In 1868, a **new government** was elected. It was led by **William Gladstone**, who believed that many aspects of British society, ranging from education, to the Church of England, to the British Army, were in need of reform. He was determined to bring Britain up-to-date and was prepared to pass laws to enforce change. He used the power of Parliament to force change upon the army (see Cardwell's army reforms). This is a clear example of the government acting as a force for change in the conduct of warfare.
- Gladstone appointed, as his new Secretary of State for War, **Edward Cardwell**. Cardwell's individual contribution was very important. He was a fine administrator and he wanted the army to be more **professional**. He forced reform through, despite strong opposition from the army itself. This is a good example of the way that **government** can be a key factor causing change in warfare.

Extend your knowledge

Sometimes causation is like a fire, being gradually built, then sparked into flame. In this case:

- the shortage of troops and poor quality of troops were like the logs – the basic fuel of a fire
- newspaper reports were like petrol poured on the logs – more fuel, but still no fire
- the 1868 government and Edward Cardwell were like the matches that started the fire.

Use this idea – of the cause of reforms being like the starting of a fire – to draw and label a diagram showing the logs, petrol and matches that caused Cardwell's army recruitment reforms.

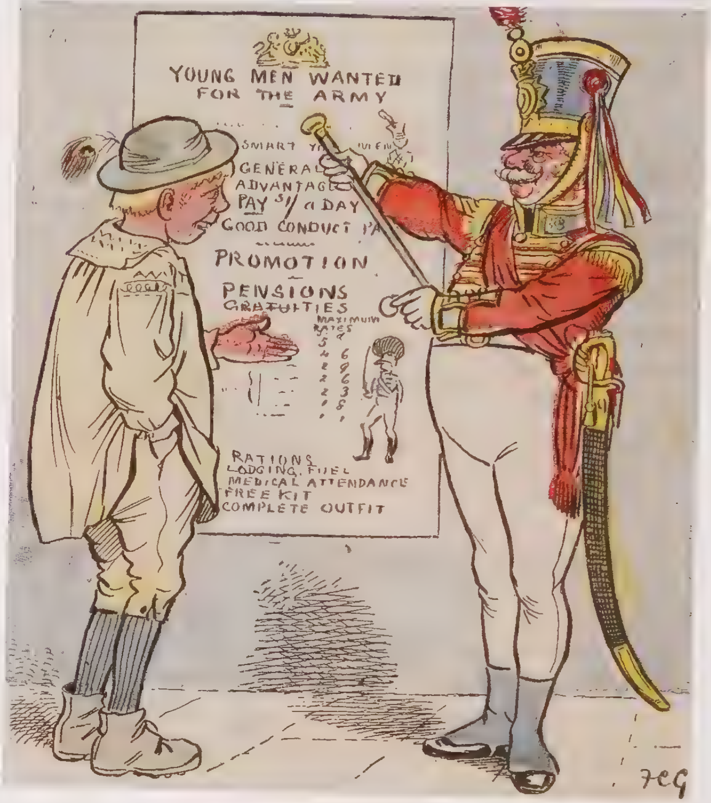
Cardwell's army reforms

Edward Cardwell, Secretary of War 1868–74, passed a series of army reforms to make it more **professional**.

1870 Army Act	**The length of enlistment changed** • Lower ranks enlisted for 12 years – six in the army and six in the reserves. • Reserves were paid a daily rate of 4d (75p in today's currency) and did annual retraining. • After 12 years, soldiers could resign, without a pension, or sign up again and receive a pension at the end of their service. This provided a constant source of extra, trained soldiers.
1871 The Regularisation of the Forces Act	**Regiments were reorganised** • Regiments were reorganised into regions, with local barracks (accommodation for soldiers to live in). • In addition, all regiments were to have two 'linked' battalions – one serving at home and one abroad. This reduced the period served abroad. • The local militia in each area made up each regiment's third battalion. These changes made service more acceptable to recruits and ensured that plenty of trained soldiers were kept in Britain for emergencies.
Other reforms	**Service conditions were improved** In 1871, rations were improved and branding was abolished as a form of punishment in the army. Flogging was abolished in peacetime (and in wartime in 1881). **Recruitment of officers was improved** In 1871, the sale of commissions was ended; promotion was to be based on merit. This improved the quality of officers.

Source C

A cartoon, published in 1892, in *Truth*, a long-running magazine which commented on political and social issues. A recruiting officer is setting out the advantages of signing up for the army.



Cardwell's reforms improved recruitment. For example, there was a reserve of 80,000 by 1900. But:

- low officer pay, and the high costs of officer training, accommodation and uniforms, meant that officers came from the same class in 1900 as they did in 1850
- low pay for lower ranks meant that recruitment 1870–1900 never reached the numbers that the government funded. Recruiting offices had to ignore age and physical requirements. When the army went to the Boer War in 1899, many recruits were undernourished and physically weak.

Training

During the Crimean War, newspapers criticised the quality of army commanders – for example, during the Charge of the Light Brigade (see page 93). In 1856, the government sent a Commission to visit the major military powers of Europe to see best practice in training. As a result, changes were introduced to improve training, particularly the training of officers.

Initial training of **cadets**	Before 1850, many officers entered the army without training. By the 1860s, more: • officers came into the army via the **Junior Department** of the Royal Military College (RMC) at **Sandhurst** • artillery and engineering officers trained at the **Woolwich Military Academy**.
Training for **existing officers**	The **Senior Department** of the RMC gave in-service training for existing officers. • In 1857, it was moved to new buildings in **Camberley**. • The capacity to train officers doubled at the new site.
Training the **trainers**	New military schools were opened to train weapons instructors: • one for rifle instructors at **Hythe**, in 1853 • one for gunnery instructors, at **Shoeburyness**, in 1859.

By 1900, training included subjects as diverse as Maths, English, Science, History and Languages, as well as practical courses on: the science and use of artillery; building fortifications and bridges; cooking and purifying water; map-reading; marching and military tactics. These changes made the army much more **professional**.

Provisioning and requisitioning

During the Crimean War, newspapers made it clear to the British public how dreadful the arrangements were for supplying troops with uniforms, ammunition, food, fuel for fires, and medical care. As a result, changes were made to the way supplies were organised, making the army more **professional**.

Before 1850, the job of running the army was divided among several government ministries, such as the Treasury and the Colonial Office. From 1855, most of the work was moved to the **War Office**. It took over all army **transport** and **supplies**, including **uniforms**. An **Army Clothing Department** was formed; this ended the system of colonels organising uniforms for their own regiments.

Requisitioning

The War Office also cut back on requisitioning – demanding goods, in an emergency, from private owners, with or without payment.

Requisitioning was sometimes necessary. For example, troop ships were very expensive for armies to have in peacetime, so ships were often requisitioned during wars.

But requisitioning was unpopular with the private owners. It was also inefficient. Requisitioning food and hiring a motley collection of civilian wagons in the bleak Crimea did not work well. Therefore:

- In 1855, the War Office formed the **Land Transport Corps**, with its own wagons and animals to pull them. It was later renamed the **'Military Train'**.
- In 1888, the **Army Service Corps** was created. These troops specialised in the provision and movement of supplies. It had training and career opportunities to attract quality recruits.

Activities ?

1. Read page 82. List three key facts about: **a** William Howard Russell **b** Roger Fenton.
2. Make a table, with two columns, showing Cardwell's army reforms. The column headings are: **a** The change Cardwell made **b** The impact the change was intended to have.
3. Make five cards. On one side, write RMC Junior Dept; RMC Senior Dept; Woolwich Military Academy; Hythe training school; Shoeburyness training school. On the reverse, write how each of these improved army training after 1850. Test your neighbour, using the cards.
4. Discuss with a neighbour whether the changes made to army provisioning after 1850 made requisitioning: **a** a thing of the past **b** more likely **c** less likely. In one paragraph, explain your answer.

Impact of war on civilians

There was no warfare on the mainland of Britain, 1850–1900. So warfare had no direct physical impact on civilians. However, warfare had an impact on British civilians in a number of other ways.

Public opinion in action

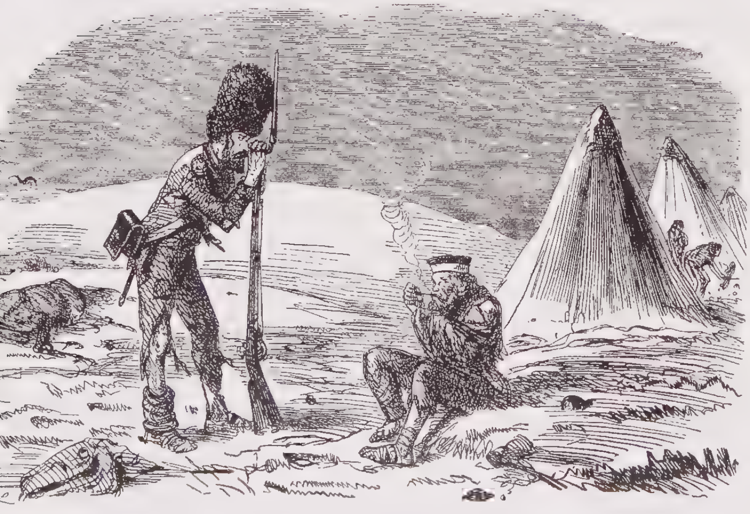
One impact of warfare on civilians was to make them more socially and politically active. We have already seen how public concerns led to changes in the organisation, recruitment and training of the army (see pages 82–85). But public pressure brought many more changes.

- During the Crimean War, people wrote letters to the press expressing their opinions about the incompetence of political and military leaders. After just a few months, criticism of the mess made of the war led the government to resign (see Source D). During the Boer War, the public also demanded change when the war did not go well (see Source E).
- The public raised money to support good causes. When *The Times* set up a fund to help sick and wounded soldiers, the public gave £5,000 within a week. That's the equivalent of people raising £3 million today.
- The public tried to make a practical difference and contribute to the war effort in whatever way they could. For example, the mining industry in Leeds sent two locomotives for the railway in the Crimea; and the Reform Club, a gentlemen's club in London, sent their chef to improve army cooking.

So warfare in the age of the popular press changed **attitudes in society**. This made civilians more socially and politically active.

Source D

A cartoon which appeared in 1856 in *Punch*, a magazine which commented upon political and social affairs. The cartoonist is criticising the government for not looking after the army better during the Crimean War.



"Well, Jack, here's good news from home. We're to have a medal."
"That's very kind. Maybe one of these days we'll have a coat to stick it on."

Source E

An extract from the *Spectator* magazine in 1902, commenting on the public reaction to the poor performance of the army during the Boer War 1899–1902. It was a political response. The public were demanding that the government should do something to improve the army.

> *There is a universal outcry for efficiency – From the pulpit, the newspaper, the hustings [political meetings], in the drawing room, the smoking room, the street, the same cry is heard; "Give us efficiency or we die".*

Attitudes in society

Warfare prompted a variety of **attitudes in society** about warfare.

- **Imperialism.** Detailed reports of British victories abroad boosted imperialism – the belief in using all means possible, including warfare, to spread British values all over the world.
- **Jingoism.** It also encouraged jingoism – an extremely patriotic, even aggressive, form of foreign policy, favouring the use of military force to boost British interests over its competitors.
- **Pacifism.** As well as encouraging support for war among some civilians, warfare also prompted the opposite view among others. Pacifism – the belief that war is wrong – became common among groups like the Quakers (a religious group), some newspapers (like the *Manchester Guardian*) and feminist groups.

So, warfare affected the public, not just by prompting political action during wars, but also by creating long-term changes in **attitudes in society** about warfare. After 1850, with increased democracy and more press coverage, attitudes in society became a much more powerful factor affecting change in warfare.

THINKING HISTORICALLY

Change and continuity (3a)

Significant change

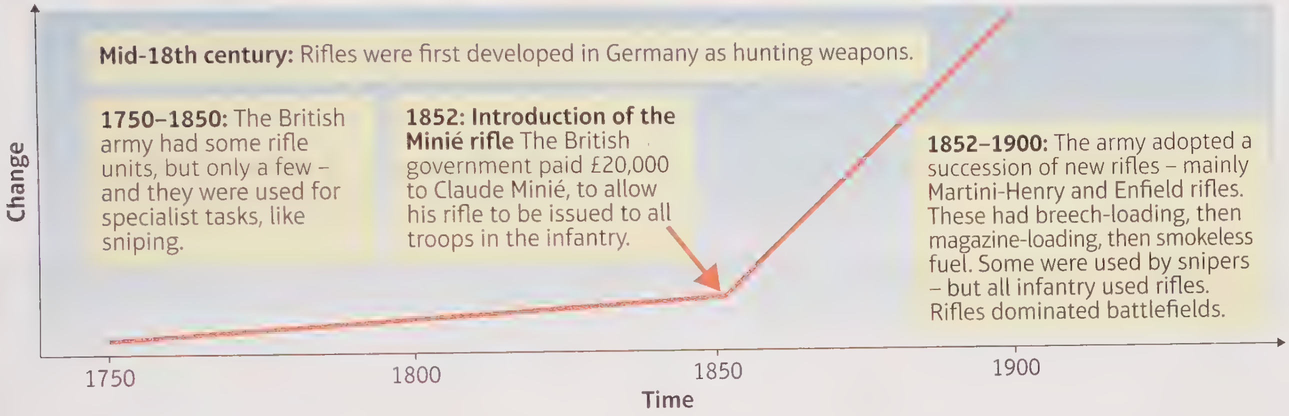
Sometimes, when describing the process of change, historians use the term **turning point**.

Your examination may ask you if a certain event is a turning point.

But what is a turning point? And how would you spot one?

What is a turning point?

A turning point is a time or an event when the *course* of change alters. Look at Figure 3.3.



Mid-18th century: Rifles were first developed in Germany as hunting weapons.

1750–1850: The British army had some rifle units, but only a few – and they were used for specialist tasks, like sniping.

1852: Introduction of the Minié rifle The British government paid £20,000 to Claude Minié, to allow his rifle to be issued to all troops in the infantry.

1852–1900: The army adopted a succession of new rifles – mainly Martini-Henry and Enfield rifles. These had breech-loading, then magazine-loading, then smokeless fuel. Some were used by snipers – but all infantry used rifles. Rifles dominated battlefields.

Figure 3.3 The change in use of rifles by the British Army.

Figure 3.3 shows how, for the use of rifles by the British Army, 1750–1852, the course of change alters and takes a *different* course after 1852. So was this a turning point? How do we judge?

The key to the judgement is: *were things significantly different **after** the event than they were **before**?* You have to weigh up those things which *were* different, against those things which *were not*. In this case:

- not *everything* was different – rifles were used by snipers before *and* after 1852
- but *some* things were *significantly* different – very few British soldiers used rifles before 1852, but they all did after 1852; rifles changed little before 1852, but a lot after 1852; rifles had little impact on battles before 1852, but they had a big impact on battles after 1852.

So, there is a strong case that 1852 is a turning point in the use of rifles in the British Army.

Turning points – the summary

A turning point is a time or an event when the *course* of change alters.

Things are *significantly different* after a turning point than they were before.

Was the Crimean War a turning point in warfare?

How could you judge whether the Crimean War was a turning point in warfare for the British Army? Look at the table below.

1. What could you add to the table about strategy, tactics and the impact of war on civilians?
2. Overall, do you think the Crimean War was a turning point?

Warfare before the Crimean War	Warfare after the Crimean War
Muskets, swords and light artillery were the key weapons of the battlefield.	Rifles, machine guns and heavier cannon were the key weapons of the battlefield.
Recruiting, training and provisioning armies changed little and slowly in the 40 years before the Crimean War.	Recruiting, training and provisioning armies changed greatly and rapidly during the 40 years after the Crimean War.
Army officers were from the upper class.	Army officers were still from the upper class.

The exam-style question on page 95 will show how well you understand turning points.

Activities ?

1 Create a spider diagram. Put 'The Press' at the centre and, on the end of each 'leg', briefly say what were the effects of press coverage of warfare, 1850–1900.

2 Look back to the section on 1700–1850 and compare the two periods. Draw a graph of change and continuity 1700–1900, plotting the developments in composition, weapons and tactics. (See pages 72–73, 89 for examples.) Was this period one of change or continuity overall?

Extend your knowledge

Another impact of warfare on civilians, in the period 1850–1900, was that it led to an improvement in medical treatment for civilians.

- Newspapers reports about poor medical care for soldiers in the Crimean War led **Florence Nightingale**, **Mary Seacole** and **Mary Stanley** to take nurses to army hospitals near the Crimea.
- In 1859, Nightingale published *Notes on Nursing*, emphasising the importance of hygiene.
- Also in 1859, she published *Notes on Hospitals*, changing hospital design and organisation.
- In 1860, she began the first formal nurses' training course in Britain, at St Thomas' Hospital in London. 'Nightingale nurses' influenced practice for decades.
- Later, in 1864, she persuaded the Liverpool Workhouse Infirmary to appoint trained nurses. Other workhouses soon followed.

Summary

- The size of armies, including the British Army, grew rapidly, 1850–1900.
- The composition of armies changed little, but the role of cavalry became more varied.
- There was rapid change in weapons, including improved cannon, rifles and machine guns.
- Factors influencing these changes include: industrialisation, standardisation of parts, science, the role of individuals, and 'spiralling change'.
- Strategy changed, but tactics – remarkably – changed little. Cavalry declined in importance.
- Newspaper reporting and photography were factors affecting the experience of warfare.
- Recruiting and training, as well as provisioning and requisitioning, changed rapidly.
- Impacts upon civilians included: better nursing, stirred up political opinions, and public activism.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give details of the change in the size of the British Army, 1850–1900.
S2 Give details of changes in weaponry, tactics and strategy, 1850–1900.
S3 Give details of the increased coverage of warfare by newspapers, 1850–1900.
S4 Give details of changes in recruitment, training, provisioning and requisitioning 1700–1900.
S5 Describe, in detail, the impact on civilians of warfare, 1700–1900.

If you are not confident about any of these, look up the answers in pages 77–86 of the book.

Challenge

C1 Explain how and why the size of the British Army increased, 1700–1900. Was it continuity or change?
C2 Explain why the importance of cavalry declined and its role changed in this period.
C3 Explain how a combination of factors caused a) weaponry and b) recruitment to change in this period.
C4 Explain how each of the following factors affected change in warfare, 1700–1900: industry; science and technology; better communication; government; key individuals.
C5 Was 1700–1900 a period of change or continuity in warfare? Explain your answer.

If you are not confident about any of these, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

3.5 The Battle of Waterloo, 1815

Learning outcomes

- Understand the events and the reasons for the outcome of the Battle of Waterloo.
- Understand the role of the Duke of Wellington in the battle.

Manoeuvring

Manoeuvring for position was a key tactical skill in battle at this time. **On 15 June** 1815, Napoleon took an army across the French border in a final attempt to defeat the other powers of Europe.

- **Napoleon** led the main body of the French army in the centre.
- **Marshal Ney** led his left flank and **Marshal Grouchy** led his right flank.

Two armies confronted Napoleon.

- The **Duke of Wellington** led troops from Britain, the Netherlands and German states.
- **Field Marshal Blücher** led a Prussian army.

On 16 June, there were two clashes between the armies.

- At Quatre Bras, Wellington fought a skirmish with Marshal Ney.
- At Ligny, 15 km away, Napoleon, commanding Grouchy's forces, inflicted heavy casualties on the Prussian army.

By 18 June, at the end of this manoeuvring, Napoleon had succeeded in separating the British and Prussian armies. The Prussians were in retreat. Napoleon had sent Grouchy, with 33,000 troops, to keep them away. But Wellington's troops were intact. Near the Belgian town of Waterloo:

- Wellington regrouped, in a defensive position, with 50,000 infantry, 12,000 cavalry and 5,000 gunners.
- Napoleon prepared to attack, with his remaining 70,000 men.

Wellington's defensive positioning

Wellington chose his position well. He drew up his troops on the reverse side of a ridge, to reduce the impact of enemy artillery. The battle area was small, five km across, flanked by the chateau (country house) of Hougoumont and the village of Papelotte. It was perfect for a defensive action. He also set up two positions, manned by his most trusted forces, in front of the ridge to break up the French assault.

- One was at the chateau of Hougoumont, held by the Coldstream Guards.
- The other was a farmhouse at La Haye Sainte, held by the King's German Legion.

Napoleon's problems

Wellington prepared to defend. He needed to avoid defeat until he was reinforced by the Prussian army. Napoleon needed to attack. But he had problems.

- Napoleon was suffering with piles, making him bad-tempered with his generals, and unable to ride his horse around the battlefield to survey the battle. This delayed the start of the battle.
- He had sent away 33,000 of his troops, ordering Grouchy to pursue the Prussians. This was an error. Blücher used a few troops to hold off Grouchy's forces and escaped with 70,000 troops, which started to arrive at Waterloo by late afternoon. Grouchy's men were wasted – they didn't tie down Blücher or help at Waterloo.

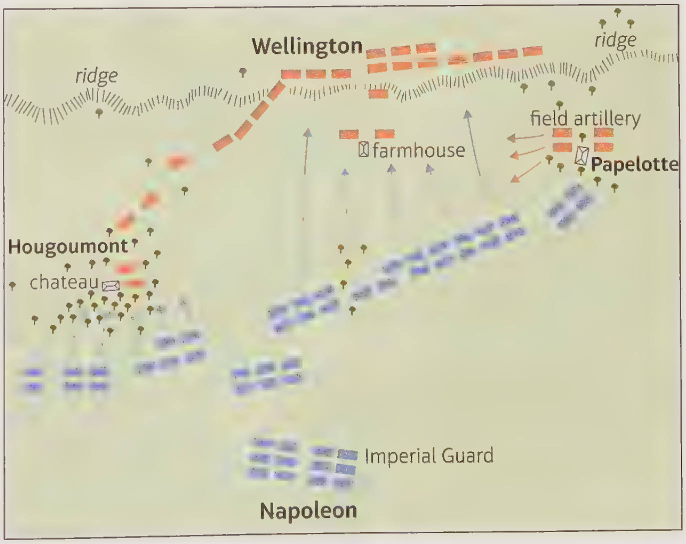


Figure 3.4 The Battle of Waterloo. Note: the ridge, the compact battle area, Wellington's defensive positions at the chateau and farmhouse, and his concealed artillery at Papelotte.

Wellington's defences hold

At 11.30am, Napoleon began his attack. He had judged the ground too muddy for cavalry until then.

- **First**, he launched an 84-gun heavy artillery bombardment – normal tactics to weaken enemy defences. But soft ground swallowed the cannonballs and canisters, preventing injuries from ricochets and shrapnel*. Wellington's position on the reverse of the ridge meant that many shots just sailed over the heads of his men.
- **At the same time,** Napoleon sent in troops. He launched a diversionary attack on the chateau on Wellington's right flank. He hoped to trick Wellington into diverting men from his centre. But 2,000 Coldstream Guards, fighting in squares, resisted. The French suffered heavy losses and needed reinforcements. Wellington's defensive position at Hougoumont eventually tied up 13,000 men – a quarter of Napoleon's entire infantry.

Key term

Shrapnel*

The deadly fragments from an exploding bomb or shell.

It was 1.00pm before Napoleon's main assault attacked the centre of Wellington's forces.

- But, by this time, Prussian troops, sent by Blücher, began to arrive. Napoleon once said: 'The loss of time is irreparable in war'. Yet, he could have attacked three hours earlier.
- There was another flaw. Napoleon sent in his infantry in wide columns, 200 men across. Columns could punch through enemy defences; but this formation did not have the firepower of an infantry line, and it was just as easily hit by enemy fire.

And Wellington did hit it! He had deployed his main defensive forces in powerful squares (see Extend your knowledge box). He had also hidden field artillery behind a dense hedge at Papelotte. They blasted the French columns. Finally, he sent in cavalry and 3,000 British infantry, marching in lines and firing successive volleys of muskets (see Tactics on page 73).

Wellington's defensive strategy had worked. Napoleon's attack had failed, and 3,000 French were captured.

Source A

The Battle of Waterloo, a sketch produced by William Heath, an ex-cavalry officer, in 1817. British infantry (right) defending in hollow square formation against French cavalry. Wellington is within the square, and the farmhouse at La Haye Saint is in the background. Typically, the battlefield is shrouded in smoke.

The final stages of the assault

At 3.00pm, Napoleon regrouped his troops and renewed his assault. At this time, his troops were more or less intact. He could have withdrawn, rejoined Grouchy's 33,000 troops and fought another day. But, he made the fateful decision to fight on. He sent Ney's troops against the farmhouse at Wellington's centre. At first, Ney's assault went badly.

At 4.00pm, however, the French had a breakthrough. Ney captured the farmhouse. For the first time, he could set up artillery and pound the tiring British forces, from only 270 metres away. Wellington described this as a crisis: 'In all my life I have not had such anxiety; I have never been so close to defeat'.

But, Napoleon made his final error. Ney appealed for reinforcements, from the 25,000 battle-hardened Imperial Guard, which Napoleon kept in reserve. Possibly annoyed by Ney's earlier failure, possibly unwilling to use his reserves, Napoleon refused.

Wellington, on the other hand, acted decisively.

- Seeing that the centre of his defensive line was about to give way, he personally led a group of German troops, from Brunswick, to strengthen the centre of his line.
- Fearful that they would desert under pressure, he lined up cavalry brigades behind them.
- Later, seeing that the Brunswick troops were giving way, he personally led a group of Grenadiers to plug the gap.

At 7.00pm, Napoleon belatedly sent in the Imperial Guard – but it was too late!

Blücher's full Prussian force had arrived. Napoleon's tired troops were now outnumbered and were completely overrun. Wellington ordered a general advance and the French were driven from the field.

By 9.00pm, the battle was won. Of 70,000 French, 25,000 were killed or wounded.

Summary

- The Battle of Waterloo shows many features typical of battles at this time.
- There were several reasons for the outcome, including the role of the **individual**, such as Wellington's tactics and Napoleon's mistakes.

Extend your knowledge

The defensive infantry square

Napoleon's attacking forces at Waterloo were infantry columns, cavalry and artillery. Against these, Wellington used infantry squares.

- These were not entirely new. They were defensive formations not unlike Scottish schiltrons.
- Wellington deployed his central defensive troops on the ridge in 20 squares, each 60 metres wide.
- The sides of the infantry squares, using muskets and bayonets, gave protection from French cavalry and infantry attacks on all sides.
- The hollow centre provided a place of refuge for artillery pieces and the wounded.

Only after the fall of La Haye Sainte could French light artillery be brought up to bombard the squares. By then, the Prussians had arrived, and the French attacks failed.

Activities ?

1. Using the dates and times given in this section, draw a timeline of the Battle of Waterloo.
2. Play 'Typical Tennis'. In a pair, take it in turns to find features of the Battle of Waterloo that were typical of warfare, 1700–1815. Record all the features you find.
3. **The role of the individual.** Set up a class debate.
   - a First, half the class should list the ways in which the leadership of the Duke of Wellington contributed to victory at Waterloo.
   - b Then the other half should list other reasons.
   - c Then debate the question: 'How important was Wellington's leadership in the result of the Battle of Waterloo?
   - d Afterwards, record your own view, giving a balanced argument for your decision.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give details to justify each of the statements made in the Summary.

If you are not confident about this, form a group with other students and discuss your answers.

3.6 The Battle of Balaclava, 1854

Learning outcomes

- Understand the event, and the reasons for the outcome, of the Battle of Balaclava.
- Understand the role played by Lord Raglan in the battle.

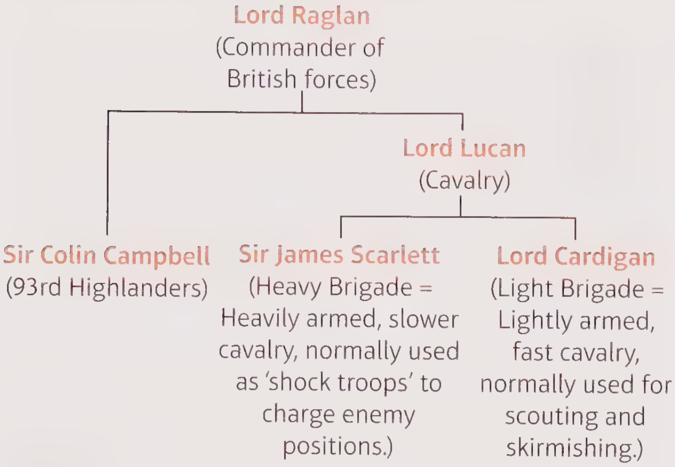

Lord Raglan
(Commander of British forces)
Lord Lucan
(Cavalry)
Sir Colin Campbell
(93rd Highlanders)
Sir James Scarlett
(Heavy Brigade = Heavily armed, slower cavalry, normally used as 'shock troops' to charge enemy positions.)
Lord Cardigan
(Light Brigade = Lightly armed, fast cavalry, normally used for scouting and skirmishing.)

Figure 3.5 Command of British forces at Balaclava.

During the **Crimean War, 1854–56**, British, French and Turkish allied troops besieged the Russian port of **Sebastopol**. **Lord Raglan**, leader of the British troops, set up a base for his stores and ammunition at the small port of **Balaclava**.

Raglan's preparations for battle

Raglan had not prepared his base well. It was protected by only:

- 2,000 infantry – most of these poorly trained Turkish soldiers. A mere 550 men, the 93rd Highlanders, guarded the main route into Balaclava.
- 1,500 cavalry – based three km away
- 26 guns – on the hills overlooking the port.

Throughout October, Raglan received intelligence about a build-up of Russian troops. But he did not reinforce his defences. And, after mustering his troops for battle in response to several false alarms, he became complacent. So the British were unprepared when, just before **6.00am on the morning of 25 October**, the British base was attacked by:

- 25,000 Russian infantry
- about 3,500 cavalry
- 78 guns.

Raglan saved by the thin red line

Russian cannon began firing on the defensive gun positions in the hills. Although Raglan sent light horse artillery forward to assist, the Turkish troops were heavily out-gunned. Gradually, the allied gun positions – and their guns – protecting the route into Balaclava began to fall into Russian hands.

By **8.00am**, the only protection between the Russians and Balaclava were the 550 infantry of the 93rd Highlanders, drawn up in a two-deep line formation, 150 metres wide.

At first, they took cover behind a low ridge, as they were pounded by artillery. But then, 2,000 Russian cavalry advanced towards them, first at a walk, then at a trot, then in a full charge. The Highlanders' commander, **Sir Colin Campbell**, ordered them to stand and face the enemy.

- They fired one round at long distance, with little effect. The charge continued.
- At 250 metres, they fired again, causing a number of casualties, and the charge began to slow and veered to the left.
- A third round of fire caused more casualties. Almost on the Highlanders' bayonets, the Russian cavalry swerved left and retreated.

The infantry, armed with Minié rifles, had held a defensive position against a much larger attacking force of charging cavalry.

At the time, this was surprising. Watching from the hills, *The Times* war correspondent, William Howard Russell, wrote that the red tunics of the defenders looked like a 'thin red streak, tipped with steel'. But it soon became clear that the 'thin red line', armed with rifles, was a powerful force.

The power of defence became a typical feature of warfare, 1855–1900.

Source A

'The Thin Red Line'. Richard Simpkin was a 19th-century artist who specialised in military subjects. This painting shows the 93rd Highlanders, in line formation, firing on Russian cavalry at Balaclava in 1854.

The charge of the Heavy Brigade – Raglan frustrated

By now, Raglan was high up on the hills, overlooking the fighting. He was in a superb position to manoeuvre his troops. He ordered 800 cavalry from the Heavy Brigade to reinforce the remaining gun positions. Unexpectedly, they came across 3,000 Russian cavalry advancing towards Balaclava.

Brigadier-General James Scarlett, commanding the Heavy Brigade, acted decisively.

- He quickly drew up his troops into three groups. One behind the other, each group in turn attacked. It was an uphill charge – highly unusual, because the slope slows the speed and force of the charge.
- The Russian column of cavalry were surprised. They stopped, but had no time to face the charge and were attacked from the side. Despite their numerical advantage, they became scattered; soon they turned and fled. The encounter had taken just eight minutes.

The charge of the Heavy Brigade ended the Russian attack on Balaclava. But it could have been even more decisive. **Lord Cardigan**, watching with over 600 Light Brigade cavalry, chose not to attack the disrupted Russians. Raglan, too far away to affect things quickly, could only watch in frustration.

Raglan and the charge of the Light Brigade

The battle was almost over. The Russians, twice rebuffed, were withdrawing. But things went wrong.

- At this point, Raglan sent a verbal message to **Lord Lucan**, requesting him to use the cavalry to occupy the area the Russians had retreated from.
- Without infantry support, Lucan chose not to treat this as an order. Nothing happened for 45 minutes. The Russians took the chance to start removing the captured allied guns from the hills.
- So Raglan sent a written message, carried by **Captain Nolan**, telling Lucan to 'advance rapidly' and 'prevent the enemy carrying away the guns'. Nolan gave the message verbally, and vaguely.
- From his position, Lucan could not see the Russians taking the British guns and thought that he was being told to attack the Russian guns. Surprised, he questioned Nolan, who replied even more vaguely, waving at the far end of the valley: 'There is your enemy; there are your guns'.
- Lucan ordered Lord Cardigan to attack the Russian guns. They both knew it was stupid.

Source B

A painting by William Simpson (1855). Cardigan leads the charge, as Russian cannon fire from the front and both flanks. Simpson was an artist and war correspondent who spoke to many people who were at the event.

Cardigan had 673 men in his cavalry Light Brigade.

- He led them in three lines, in a charge, 2.5 km down the valley, raked by fire from the hills on both sides, and bombarded by 30 cannon in front. Many men fell in the process.
- They reached the Russian guns and cut down the gunners with sabres.
- At this point, they were attacked by a superior force of Russian cavalry. Cardigan felt he had no choice but to charge straight back down the same valley, leaving many of his men behind.
- Fortunately for Cardigan, his second-in-command, **Lord Paget**, reorganised the Light Brigade and reinforcements came from the French cavalry. Together, they held off the attack, and then escaped the Russian cavalry.
- On their retreat back along the valley, they were again blasted from both sides by enemy guns.

The incident lasted 20 minutes. They captured no land, no guns and no troops. It had been a pointless act. Of the 673 men, 113 were killed and 134 wounded. Most of the horses had to be destroyed.

Activities ?

1 Have a balloon debate. In the balloon are: Lord Raglan, Sir Colin Campbell, Brigadier-General James Scarlett, Lord Lucan, Lord Cardigan and Lord Paget. Select a student, or a group of students, to argue for each of them. Vote to see who your class would throw out of the balloon: first, second, third, fourth, fifth and last. What did the debate tell you about: **a** the quality of officers in the Crimean War **b** Lord Raglan?

2 List features of the Battle of Balaclava which were: **a** typical of warfare, 1700–1850; **b** typical of warfare, 1850–1900.

3 Here are some reasons for the outcome of fighting at the Battle of Balaclava. Which do you think was the most important?
  a The quality of leadership.
  b The quality of troops.
  c The quality of weapons.

Explain your answer.

Summary

- The Battle of Balaclava was a Russian attack on a British military base.
- The 'thin red line' and the 'charge of the Heavy Brigade' fought off the Russian attack.
- However, as the armies parted, the British needlessly launched a third stage of the battle – a charge upon Russian positions. It was pointless and costly. It is known as the 'Charge of the Light Brigade'.
- The Battle of Balaclava shows features typical of warfare both before and after 1850.
- Individual commanders e.g. Raglan – were a key reason for the outcome of all three stages of the battle.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Give details to justify each of the five statements made in the Summary above.

If you are not confident about any of these, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

Recap c1700–c1900: Warfare and British society

Although this chapter divides the period 1700–1900 into two distinct periods, it is important to consider continuity and change across the whole period – and the span of the topic. You will always be asked to consider change across either 100 or 200 years of history. Draw a table showing continuity and change in Warfare, c1700–c1900, based on the one below. Draw larger coloured boxes and use these to note down evidence for each of the examples of: Continuity, Change, Trend / Turning Point, Factors and Consequences in the table. The evidence will be detailed information like statistics, a key battle, a new law, etc.

Change and continuity	
Continuity	
Composition of armies	
Size of armies 1700–1850	
Weapons 1700–1850	
Strategy 1700–1850	
Recruitment 1700–1850	
Training 1700–1850	
Impact on civilians 1700–1850	
Importance of positioning armies at the start of battles	
Role of individual commanders in the outcome of battles	
Change	
Light field artillery 1700–1850	
Tactics 1700–1850	
Size of armies 1850–1900	
Improved cannon 1850–1900	
Rifles 1850–1900	
Machine guns 1850–1900	
Tactics 1850 –1900	
Recruitment 1850–1900	
Training 1850–1900	
Provisioning 1850–1900	

Patterns of change	
Trend or turning point	
Turning point Introduction of new weapons from c1850	
Turning point Crimean War	
Turning point Cardwell's Army Reforms 1870	
Trend Increasing power of defence over attack	
Trend Decline of the cavalry	
Trend Increasing press reporting about the army, wars and warfare	

Factors affecting warfare	
Factor affecting change	
Social attitudes 1700–1850	
Political attitudes 1700–1850	
Individuals 1700–1900	
Industrialisation 1700–1900	
Mass production 1850–1900	
Science 1850–1900	
Technology 1850–1900	
Communication 1850–1900	
Reporting wars 1850–1900	
Consequence for civilians	
Increased public involvement and pressure on government concerning army, wars and warfare	
Changing public attitudes towards warfare	
Medical improvement for the general public	

Exam-style question, Section B

'The Crimean War was a turning point in warfare during the period 1700–1900'.

How far do you agree? Explain your answer. You may use the following in your answer:

- the importance of rifles
- recruitment.

You must also use information of your own. **20 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis and evaluation of change.

- An event is a turning point if things were significantly different **after** the event than they were **before**.
- The answer should set out a series of ways in which warfare either was or was not different before and after the war. Then make a judgement about whether the Crimean War was a turning point, based on whether warfare was **significantly** different after the Crimean War than it was before.

Writing historically: using phrases to build detail

The best historical writing uses carefully structured phrases to incorporate a wealth of factual detail.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you will understand how to:

- use prepositional phrases to add factual detail to your writing
- use adjectives and adverbials to add more detailed information to your ideas.

Definitions

Adjective: a word that provides additional information about a noun, e.g. 'clear, precise writing'.

Prepositional phrase: a phrase that begins with a preposition, often giving information about position or time, e.g. 'in the 19th century', 'at Waterloo', 'after several years'.

Adverbial: a word or phrase that can modify a verb, adjective or another adverb, e.g. 'quickly', 'incredibly', 'such'.

How can I add factual detail to my writing?

Prepositions describe the relationship between other words or phrases in a sentence. Prepositions include words like:

in	at	on	after	before	during	with	without	from	to	between

Prepositional phrases can be used to add important information about the time and/or place that significant events took place in. For example:

During the Crimean War...	In the early 1800s...	Before Bessemer's patent...
With the invention of rifles...	Without this knowledge...	From 1854 to 1856...

1. Look at the response to the following exam-style question. Rewrite the extract, adding key information using prepositional phrases. The highlighted sections show where the answer needs more information – usually, **when** and **where** these events happened. Can you add the relevant detail in?

> 'The Crimean War was a turning point in warfare during the period 1700–1900'. How far do you agree? **(20 marks)**

Soldiers could do little against cavalry attacks if caught outside a square. However, developments in science and technology improved weapons and Balaclava showed the tables had turned as British rifles repelled a Russian cavalry attack. This demonstrated that defence now outweighed attack. This was clear at Inkerman, when the greatly outnumbered British infantry drove off a large Russian attack with Minié rifles. Other wars proved it.

The infantry's role became more significant. The introduction of Maxim machine guns and new artillery further strengthened the power of defence.

How can I add detail to my writing?

One way in which you can add more information to your answer is by expanding noun phrases, using **adjectives**, prepositional phrases and **adverbials**.

Compare the two versions of the same sentences, below, from a response to the exam-style question on the previous page.

> *The industrial revolution was also important. Mass production, new rifles, new chemicals and better transport delivered new weapons to soldiers.*

> *The industrial revolution was also important in changing warfare between 1700 and 1900. Mass production meant that new and better rifles and new chemicals, such as nitroglycerine, could be produced quickly and cheaply, and better, steam-powered transport delivered these new weapons to soldiers more easily.*

In the second version, the writer has made the response more precise and detailed by modifying some of the nouns using adjectives, prepositional phrases and adverbials.

Look at the copy of the second sentence below. The adverbials, adjectives and prepositional phrases have been highlighted.

> *The industrial revolution was also important in changing warfare between 1700 and 1900. Mass production meant that new and better rifles and new chemicals, such as nitroglycerine, could be produced quickly and cheaply, and better, steam-powered transport delivered these new weapons to soldiers more easily.*

2. What **kinds** of information and detail can adjectives, prepositional phrases and adverbials add to historical writing?

Improving an answer

3. Now look at the next section of this response below. How could you use prepositional phrases and expand some of the noun phrases to make the response more precise and detailed? You could use your own ideas or look at the comments to help you.

When did this happen?

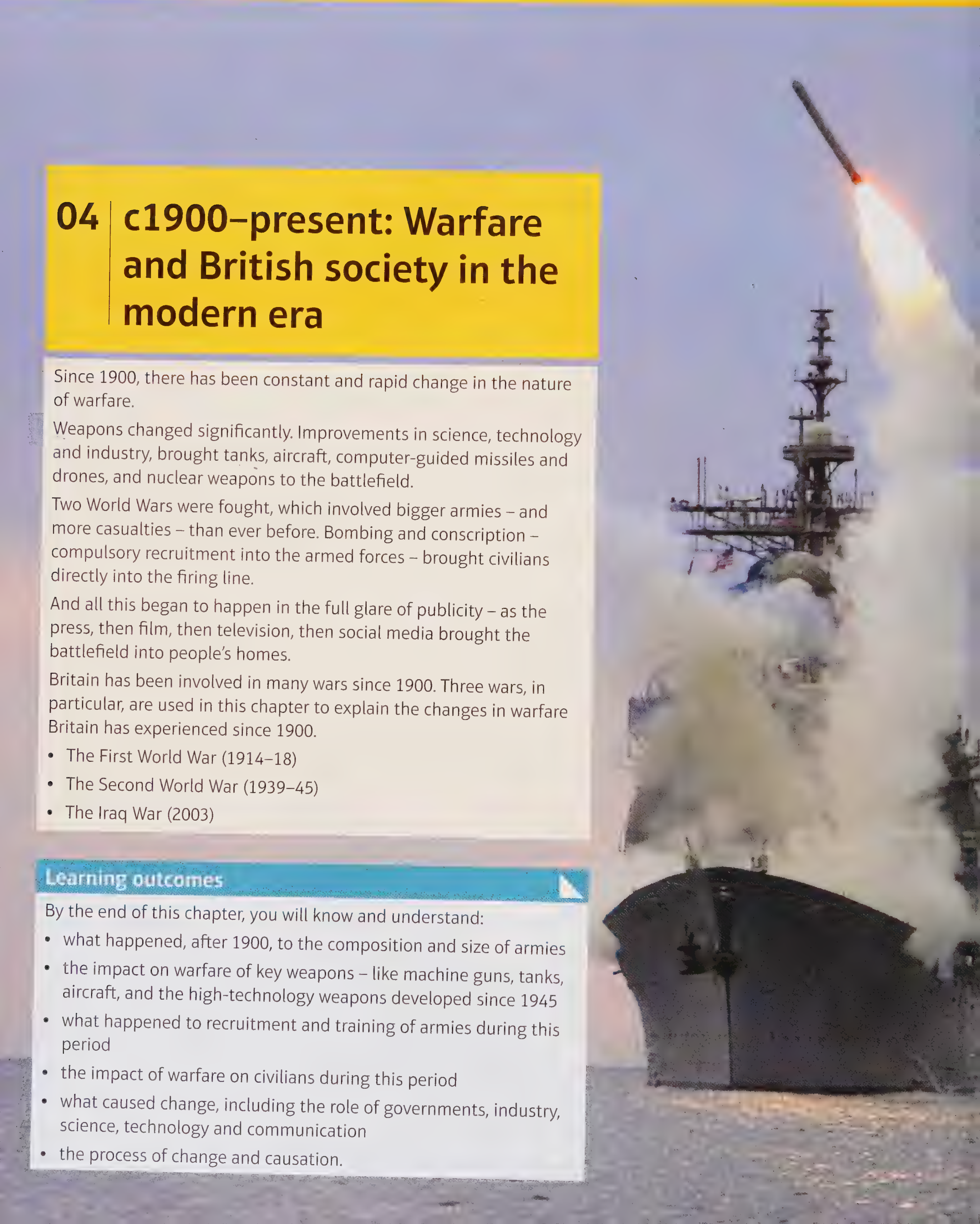
Which people?

What kind of improvements?

> *Before the industrial revolution, people were not affected by improvements that they couldn't afford to use. When they became available through the revolution, there was a race for innovation.*

When did this happen?

What kind of innovations?



04 c1900–present: Warfare and British society in the modern era

Since 1900, there has been constant and rapid change in the nature of warfare.

Weapons changed significantly. Improvements in science, technology and industry, brought tanks, aircraft, computer-guided missiles and drones, and nuclear weapons to the battlefield.

Two World Wars were fought, which involved bigger armies – and more casualties – than ever before. Bombing and conscription – compulsory recruitment into the armed forces – brought civilians directly into the firing line.

And all this began to happen in the full glare of publicity – as the press, then film, then television, then social media brought the battlefield into people's homes.

Britain has been involved in many wars since 1900. Three wars, in particular, are used in this chapter to explain the changes in warfare Britain has experienced since 1900.

- The First World War (1914–18)
- The Second World War (1939–45)
- The Iraq War (2003)

Learning outcomes

By the end of this chapter, you will know and understand:

- what happened, after 1900, to the composition and size of armies
- the impact on warfare of key weapons – like machine guns, tanks, aircraft, and the high-technology weapons developed since 1945
- what happened to recruitment and training of armies during this period
- the impact of warfare on civilians during this period
- what caused change, including the role of governments, industry, science, technology and communication
- the process of change and causation.

4.1 The nature of warfare, 1900–present

Learning outcomes

- Understand changes in the composition of armies in this period.
- Understand the impact of new technology and developments on warfare.

Change and continuity

The size of the army

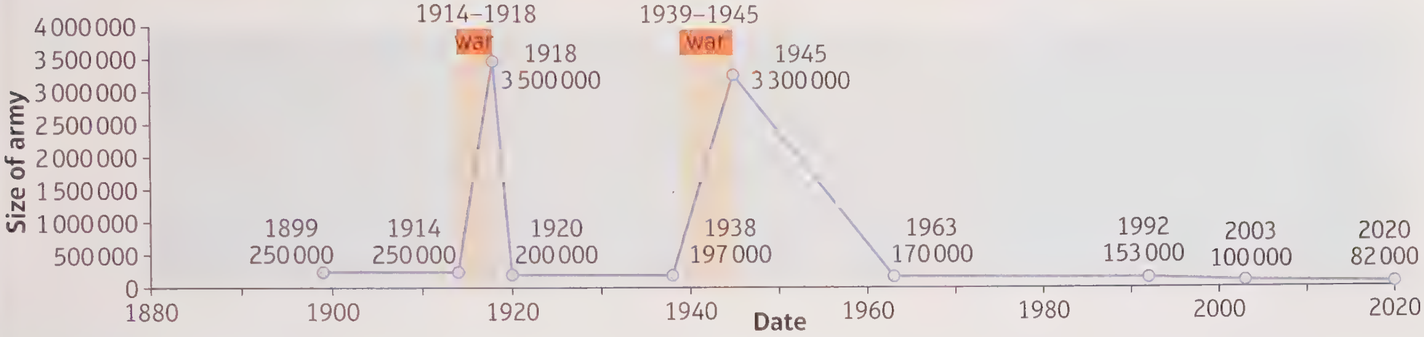


Figure 4.1 The pattern of change in the size of the regular Army, 1899–2003.

It is interesting to compare the pattern of change in Figure 4.1 (above) with Figure 3.2 (on page 71). In one sense, there was **no change**. Britain had a relatively small regular army in peacetime – the standing army – which grew during major wars, but shrank back again when those wars ended. But, in other ways, there was **change**.

- When the army grew, during wartime, it grew to unprecedented size. For example, it grew to three and a half million during the First World War.
- The trend from 1700–1900 was reversed. Whereas the size of Britain's standing army grew bigger from 1700–1900, since 1900 it has gradually grown smaller. The size of the regular army has now fallen back to the same size as it was in about 1840.

The composition of the army

Because warfare has changed so much since 1900, the composition of the army has also changed.

	1900	Present day
Infantry	The main army force. Infantry were 65% of the army in 1914.	**A big change**. They are still the troops most likely to confront the enemy on the ground. But warfare has changed – it is more complex. So the proportion of infantry in the army has fallen. In 2015, infantry made up just 25% of Britain's army.
Cavalry	The cavalry was used for scouting and raiding. It was 10% of the army in 1914.	**A big change**. The effective battlefield role of cavalry came to an end by 1918. But the role which cavalry used to fulfil continues. Where cavalry used to charge enemy forces, tanks have now taken their place. Where cavalry used to protect infantry against attack, tanks now do this. In 2015, tank units made up 10% of Britain's army.
Artillery	Artillery was a key weapon. Artillerymen were 20% of the army in 1914.	**A big change**. Bombarding the enemy is still a key part of modern warfare. However, aircraft and tanks now share this role with ground artillery, so the proportion of artillery troops in the army has fallen. In 2015, the Royal Artillery made up about 10% of Britain's army.
Specialist troops (see pages 100–101)	Specialist units, e.g. medical and administrative staff, were only about 5% of the army in 1914.	**A big change**. 55% of Britain's army are now specialist troops, e.g: • the Royal Engineers (c10%), infantry mainly used to build bridges, roads, etc • the Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers (c10%) tend vehicles and equipment • the Logistics Corps (c15%) and Royal Army Medical Corps (c3%).

Haldane's Reforms, 1908 – modern army structure

Attitudes in society towards the poor performance of the British Army during the Boer War (1899–1902) led to calls for reform of the organisation of the army.

In 1908, the Secretary of State for War, Lord Haldane, restructured the British Army. His ideas still influence policy about the composition of the British Army today.

In 2010, plans for the future of the British Army, called **Army 2020**, were put into place.

Haldane's structure divided Britain's army into two groups	**The Regular Army.** Britain's standing army. Haldane planned a permanent force of 150,000 volunteers, which would be able to defend the country or serve abroad. This was the force that Britain sent to war in 1914 and 1939.	**The Territorial Force.** Haldane combined Britain's reserve and part-time forces (like the yeomanry) into a national reserve of part-time soldiers, who could defend against attack and reinforce the regular army in an emergency. It numbered 270,000 men by 1914. It was renamed the **Territorial Army** in 1920.
Army 2020 similar structure	**The Regular Army.** Britain's standing army. Full-time, volunteer professional soldiers – planned to be 82,000 troops.	**The Army Reserve.** Since 2013, this has been the new name of the Territorial Army. It consists of part-time soldiers – planned to be about 30,000 troops.

Specialist troops – logistics

Army logistics involves: transporting troops; providing food, supplies and ammunition; moving sick or wounded troops; and army postal communication.

Before 1900, logistics were not well organised.

- Until the 1790s, food and transport were arranged by army commanders. They raided food supplies, requisitioned food stores from friendly suppliers, and hired transport from contractors.
- In the 1790s, the **Royal Waggoners** were created as a uniformed army transport corps within the British Army. But they were disbanded in peacetime.
- In 1855, the problems of logistics in the Crimean War led to the creation of a new army corps to provide all its food, supplies and transport. It was a permanent corps called the **Military Train**.
- In 1888, the **Military Train** was renamed the **Army Service Corps** (ASC). It was small, but it was the subject of rapid change after 1900.

Royal Army Service Corps

During the First World War (1914–18), the logistics of such a large army – for so long, and so far from home – became a huge challenge. The Army Service Corps had to supply food, forage and petrol:

- for 120,000 men, 50,000 horses and 1,000 motor vehicles in 1914
- for three million men, 500,000 horses and 90,000 motor vehicles by 1918.

As a result, by 1918, the ASC had 300,000 men – 10% of the total army. They served as planners, drivers, railwaymen and couriers, and were renamed the **Royal Army Service Corps** (RASC).

During the Second World War (1939–45), logistics were even more demanding.

- The Allied landing in France on D-Day (June 1944) was the biggest amphibious (sea to land) troop landing in history.
- It used 4,300 sea-going ships to transport and land, under fire, 130,000 men and 20,000 vehicles – all in one day.

In 1993, the RASC merged with other army corps and was renamed the **Royal Logistics Corps** (RLC), with 16,000 men and women. It formed about 15% of the entire British Army.

In 2003, the RLC planned the logistics for British troops in the invasion of Iraq.

- About 45,000 troops, with all their arms, tents, food, water, and even portaloos, were transported over 3,000 km in 73 ships and 1,200 aircraft flights.

Specialist troops – Explosive Ordnance Disposal (EOD)

During the Second World War, some German bombs that dropped on British cities failed to explode. It became clear that specialist troops would be needed to make these safe.

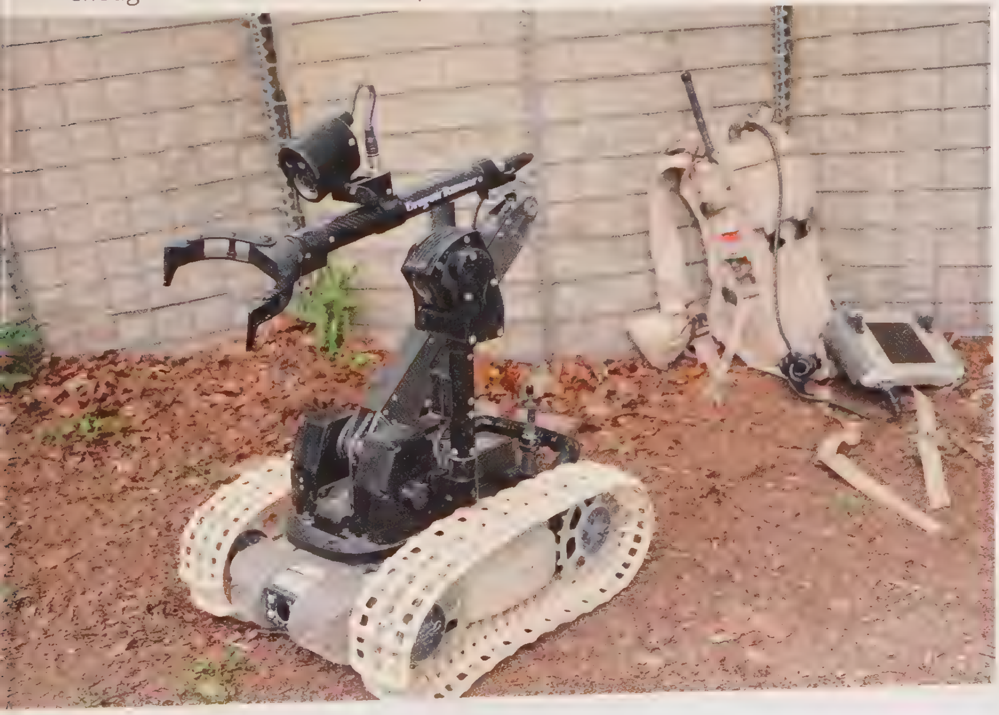
- In 1940, 25 army bomb disposal units were formed, each containing 16 men. They cleared 20 bombs in June 1940, 100 in July, and 300 in August.
- By the end of the year, another 109 bomb disposal teams had been created – and in just one year, 25,000 bombs were made safe. Bomb disposal had become a major task.

EOD troops are still trained soldiers who specialise in bomb disposal. But the work is more varied.

- As well as making safe munitions found after wars, they also deal with land mines and '**IEDs**' (improvised explosive devices) – bombs made by terrorists and unofficial armies during wars.
- Many bombs are still disarmed manually. But, in 1972, a remote controlled robot was invented by Lieutenant-Colonel Peter Miller. It used an electrically operated wheelbarrow to tow bombs to a place of safe detonation. Bomb disposal robots are now more complex and have become high-tech. For example, the British 'Dragon Runner' has pincers, digging arms, cameras and electronic jammers. But they are often still called 'wheelbarrows'.
- In 2015, the British Army had about 2,000 EOD personnel and 300 working military sniffer dogs.

Source A

A 'Dragon Runner' – a bomb disposal robot, used by the British Army. It is light enough to be carried in a back-pack.



Extend your knowledge

Use an internet search engine to look for images of

- 'bomb disposal Second World War'

and

- 'explosive ordnance disposal Iraq and Afghanistan'.

Study the images and use them to list

a) the similarities and

b) the differences between the work of explosives disposal troops in the Second World War and today.

Activities

1 Study the information about the size of armies on pages 11, 45, 71 and 99. Draw a line graph to show how the size of armies has changed since 1250.

2 Look at the information on pages 99 and 100. List the key changes in the composition of the army since 1900.

3 Write a brief paragraph to describe army logistics:

  a before c1790

  b c1790 to 1900

  c 1900 to today.

4 Write brief notes about army bomb disposal teams since 1940. Challenge each other in class to speak about your notes without hesitation, deviation or repetition.

The impact of changes in weaponry, transport and surveillance, 1900–45

Key terms

Surveillance*

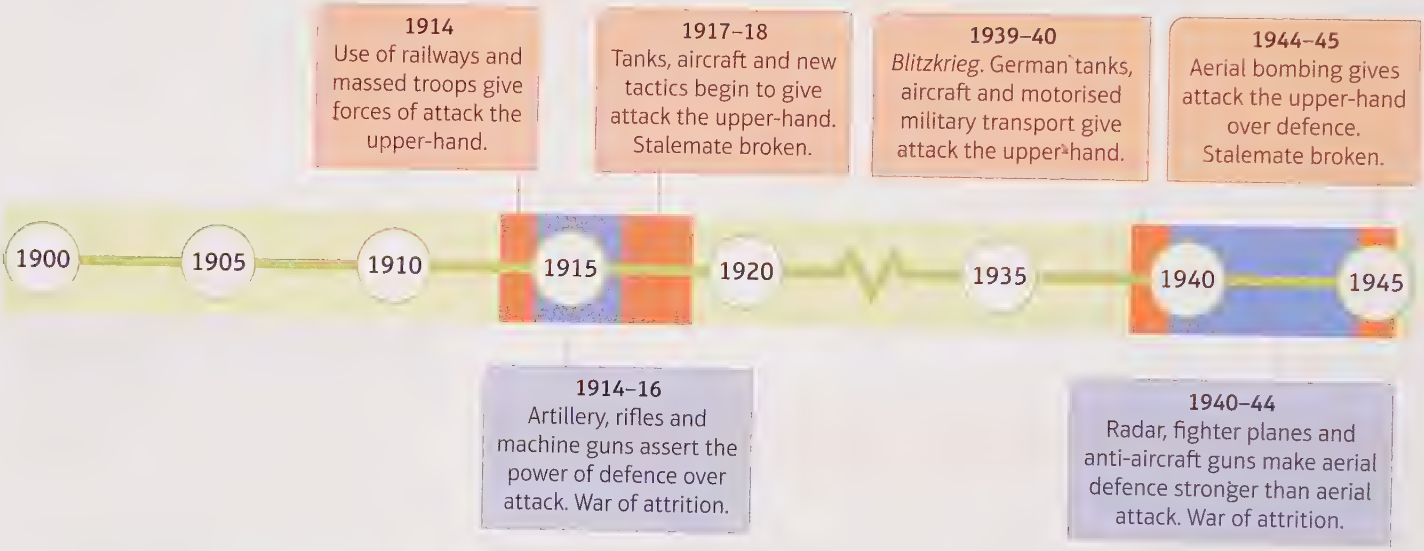
Keeping a close watch on people to be sure of what they are doing.

Attrition*

Slowly wearing down the enemy: wars decided by the side that fields most troops, produces most weapons, and lasts longest.

From 1900–45, the change in weapons, military transport and surveillance* methods was constant and rapid. So warfare has been continually changing. However, there is a pattern to the change.

- When armies adopted new weapons, transport and surveillance methods, it initially strengthened the power of attack and enabled them to capture territory quite rapidly.
- But, in the longer term, this military advantage did not last. Weapons of defence resisted the power of attack. The result became **stalemate** and **'wars of attrition'***.



1914
Use of railways and massed troops give forces of attack the upper-hand.

1917–18
Tanks, aircraft and new tactics begin to give attack the upper-hand. Stalemate broken.

1939–40
Blitzkrieg. German tanks, aircraft and motorised military transport give attack the upper-hand.

1944–45
Aerial bombing gives attack the upper-hand over defence. Stalemate broken.

1914–16
Artillery, rifles and machine guns assert the power of defence over attack. War of attrition.

1940–44
Radar, fighter planes and anti-aircraft guns make aerial defence stronger than aerial attack. War of attrition.

Figure 4.2 The impact on warfare of changes in weapons, military transport and surveillance, 1914–45.

1914: Railways produce war of movement

In 1914, Germany launched an attack on France, unexpectedly, through Belgium. To ensure surprise, the use of railways for military transport was key to the plan. Trains were used to concentrate troops in one area, moving two million men and 600,000 horses in 11,000 train journeys. Troop movements by train were up to 15 times faster than marching. In this way, the German army outmanoeuvred the French and swept aside the outnumbered defenders. Within one month, it had advanced over 300 km to the outskirts of Paris. The impact of military transport had produced a '**war of movement**'.

But, the dominant weapons in 1914 were artillery, rifles and – most effective of all – machine guns. Trains had moved the attacking army into position; but the army still needed to fight through opposition defences. Eventually, the forces of defence, using machine guns from heavily manned trenches, proved stronger than the forces of attack, and this produced stalemate.

Interpretation 1

Extract from a modern website 'The Long Long War', looking back at the significance of the tank.

In retrospect, the tanks of 1916–1918 were not war-winners but they were a vital development. The only chance to use them in a mobile role in decisive action (October 1918) came too late – by then so many had been damaged or destroyed or worn out by the great advance that they were in no position to exploit the crumbling German defence.

1914–16: Machine guns turn movement into stalemate

Typical machine guns of 1914, like the Maxim and the .303 Vickers, were heavy and difficult to carry.

- They weighed about 50 kg and had to be supported by heavy metal tripods.
- They had to be fed, fired and cooled by a team of between four and six soldiers.

So, they were clumsy to use in rapid advances – but devastating in defence.

- A machine gun fired 600 rounds per minute – equivalent to about 80 rifles.
- With a range of around 4,000 metres, they mowed down the soldiers attacking defensive lines.

The combined defensive power of artillery, rifles and machine guns stopped the German offensive short of Paris. Opposing troops dug into defensive trenches, facing each other, unable to advance.

The parallel lines of opposing trenches stayed almost unchanged until about 1917. This was the **Western Front**. Attempts to storm enemy trenches with infantry charges failed, with heavy losses. 60,000 British soldiers were killed or wounded on the first day of the **Battle of the Somme in 1916** – half of those who fought. Machine guns, together with rifles and artillery shells, were the main reason.

So **movement** was replaced by **stalemate**. The First World War became a **war of attrition**.

1916–18: Tanks and aircraft bring back war of movement

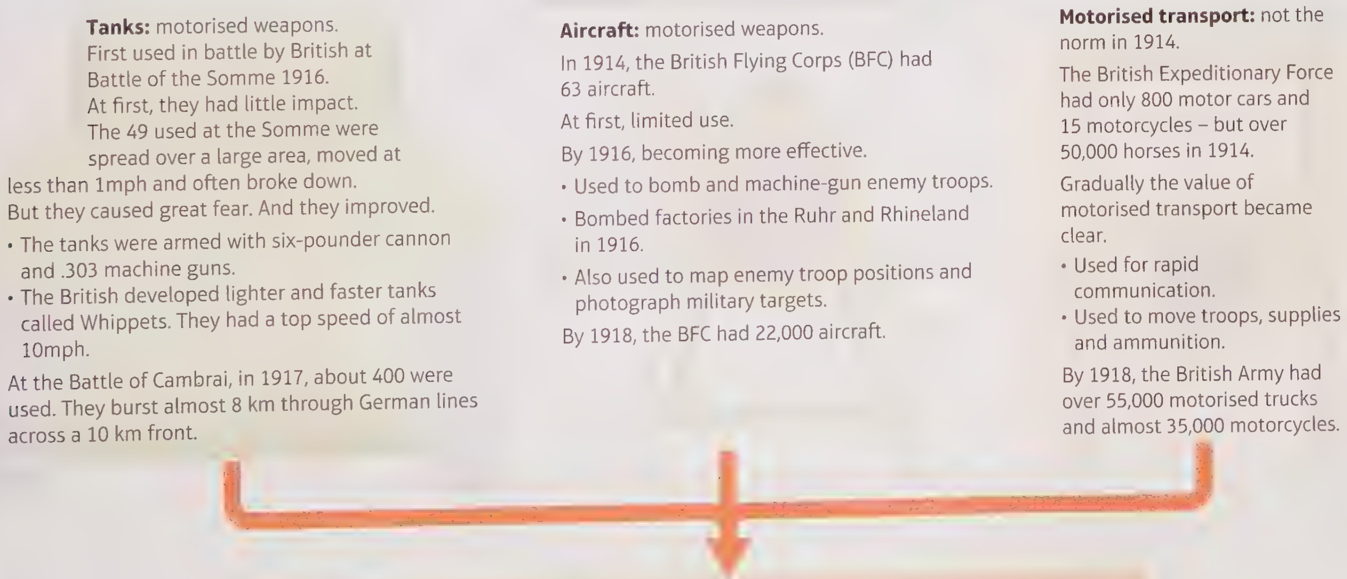
In 1917 and 1918, attacks became more successful. War of movement returned. One reason for this new war of movement was the use of new weapons, motorised transport and surveillance.

Activities ?

1 Jot down your two most memorable facts about:
  - a First World War machine guns
  - b First World War tanks
  - c First World War aircraft
  - d First World War military transport.

2 Write a paragraph to justify the following statements:
  - a Machine guns were cumbersome in 1914, but they were effective defensive weapons.
  - b Tanks and aircraft were very limited weapons in the First World War. By 1918, however, they were starting to have an effect as weapons of attack.

3 Search the internet for 'First World War weapons videos' and watch film footage from the time. Draw up a fact-file of information about machine guns, tanks, aircraft and military transport.



Tanks: motorised weapons.
First used in battle by British at Battle of the Somme 1916.
At first, they had little impact.
The 49 used at the Somme were spread over a large area, moved at less than 1mph and often broke down.
But they caused great fear. And they improved.

- The tanks were armed with six-pounder cannon and .303 machine guns.
- The British developed lighter and faster tanks called Whippets. They had a top speed of almost 10mph.

At the Battle of Cambrai, in 1917, about 400 were used. They burst almost 8 km through German lines across a 10 km front.

Aircraft: motorised weapons.

In 1914, the British Flying Corps (BFC) had 63 aircraft.

At first, limited use.

By 1916, becoming more effective.

- Used to bomb and machine-gun enemy troops.
- Bombed factories in the Ruhr and Rhineland in 1916.
- Also used to map enemy troop positions and photograph military targets.

By 1918, the BFC had 22,000 aircraft.

Motorised transport: not the norm in 1914.

The British Expeditionary Force had only 800 motor cars and 15 motorcycles – but over 50,000 horses in 1914.

Gradually the value of motorised transport became clear.

- Used for rapid communication.
- Used to move troops, supplies and ammunition.

By 1918, the British Army had over 55,000 motorised trucks and almost 35,000 motorcycles.

At Amiens, in 1918, British and Allied troops used 450 tanks and 1,900 aircraft to attack German lines. They gained 13 km, killed 15,000 enemy troops and took 12,000 prisoners.

So, during 1917–18, new weapons and motorised transport helped to end the stalemate.

It is important to note that there were several reasons for the end of the stalemate, including Allied manpower, industry and economic strength. But, new weapons played their part.

Figure 4.3 Tanks, aircraft and motorised transport begin to restart war of movement.

1939–40: Tanks and aircraft produce more dynamic war of movement

Between 1939 and 1940, when the Second World War began, the weapons of attack were still stronger than defence. Tanks and aircraft were used to maintain war of movement. By this time:

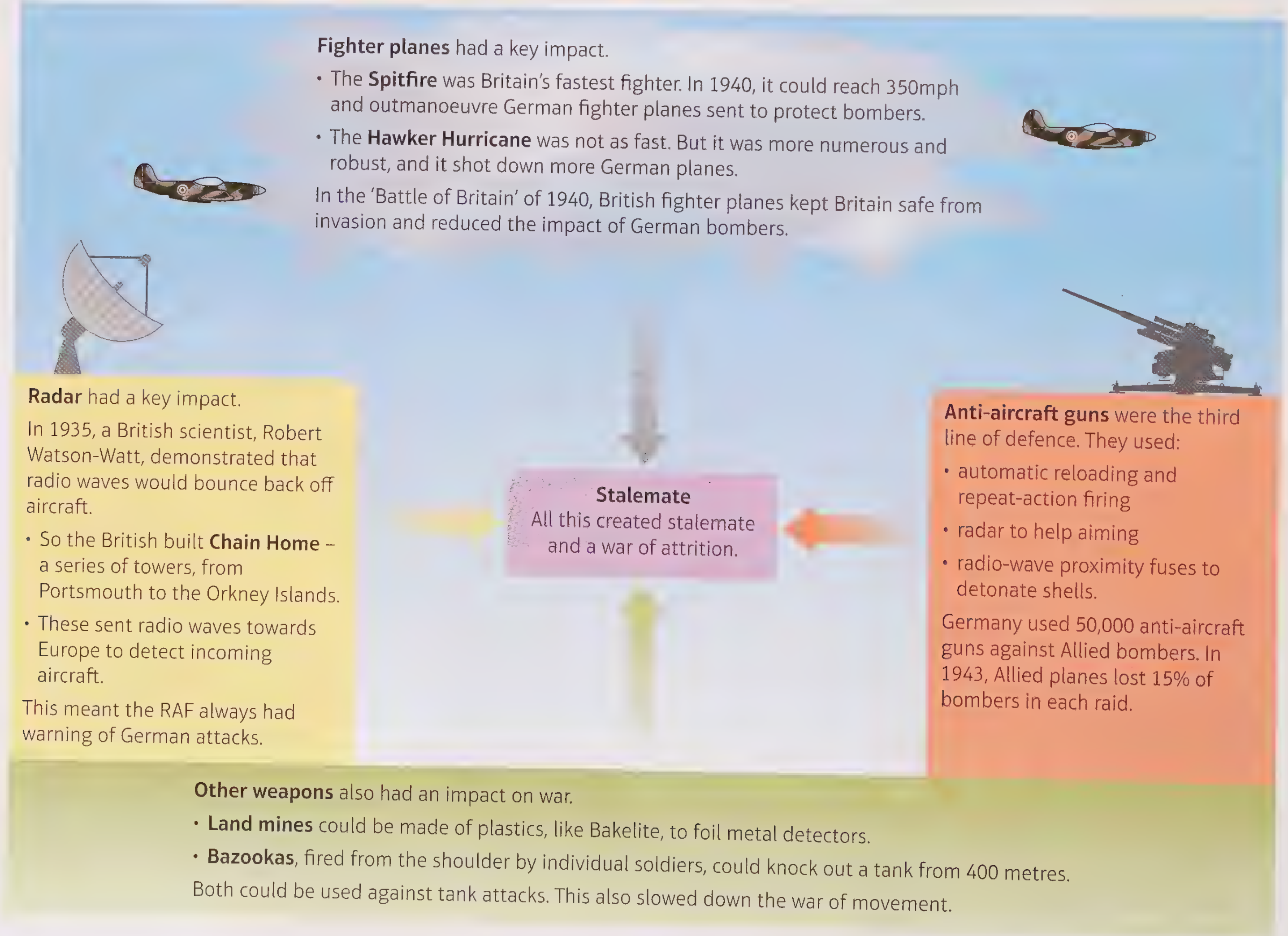
- **tanks** could move at 20–40mph.
- **aircraft**, like the German 'Stuka', could fly low at almost 240mph, machine-gunning troops on the ground; or fly at high level and drop up to 500 kg of bombs.
- **aircraft** could also parachute troops behind enemy lines. Then, motorised jeeps and lorries could transport infantry quickly into areas taken by tanks, to consolidate ground won.
- **radios** could be used to coordinate attacks.

These weapons led to **new tactics**. The German army combined tanks, aircraft and motorised vehicles to create a war of movement using a tactic called ***Blitzkrieg*** ('lightning war'). Commanders in the field were given a free hand to use the speed of attacking weapons to punch past defensive positions, and then use their own initiative to cause damage to the enemy. Between 1939 and 1940, German troops captured Poland, Denmark, Norway, Belgium, Holland and France.

However, from 1940, other weapons and surveillance methods caused a return to stalemate.

1940–43: Air defence stronger than air attack – stalemate

At the start of the Second World War, people expected bombing from aircraft to be the decisive weapon. Eventually it was – but, for a while, new weapons and surveillance methods caused stalemate. (See Figure 4.4).



Fighter planes had a key impact.

- The **Spitfire** was Britain's fastest fighter. In 1940, it could reach 350mph and outmanoeuvre German fighter planes sent to protect bombers.
- The **Hawker Hurricane** was not as fast. But it was more numerous and robust, and it shot down more German planes.

In the 'Battle of Britain' of 1940, British fighter planes kept Britain safe from invasion and reduced the impact of German bombers.

Radar had a key impact.

In 1935, a British scientist, Robert Watson-Watt, demonstrated that radio waves would bounce back off aircraft.

- So the British built **Chain Home** – a series of towers, from Portsmouth to the Orkney Islands.
- These sent radio waves towards Europe to detect incoming aircraft.

This meant the RAF always had warning of German attacks.

Stalemate
All this created stalemate and a war of attrition.

Anti-aircraft guns were the third line of defence. They used:

- automatic reloading and repeat-action firing
- radar to help aiming
- radio-wave proximity fuses to detonate shells.

Germany used 50,000 anti-aircraft guns against Allied bombers. In 1943, Allied planes lost 15% of bombers in each raid.

Other weapons also had an impact on war.

- **Land mines** could be made of plastics, like Bakelite, to foil metal detectors.
- **Bazookas**, fired from the shoulder by individual soldiers, could knock out a tank from 400 metres.

Both could be used against tank attacks. This also slowed down the war of movement.

Figure 4.4 Aerial defence causes stalemate and war of attrition, 1940–43.

1943–45: Bombing ends the stalemate

From about 1943, air attack regained the upper-hand over air defence. As in 1918, Britain and its Allies overcame German defence and broke the stalemate. Again, there were several factors that explain why, including: government actions, improved technology, and industrial strength. But aerial attack, in particular bombing, was the key weapon that ended stalemate in the Second World War, in the following ways:

- **Aerial support.** Air support became vital for infantry. By 1944, Allied aircraft had control of the skies over Germany. They created what they called the '**cab rank**' system, which involved having aircraft constantly in the skies, so that infantry could instantly call up air strikes on enemy troops to weaken resistance.
- **Bombers improved.** Lancaster bombers had a range of 2,500 km, were protected by ten machine guns, and carried 11 tons of bombs. Britain built 7,000 by 1945 – they flew 150,000 raids.
- **Bombing technology improved.** Britain developed the 'oboe system' to target bombs. A radio signal was directed from Britain at a target in Germany; controllers then guided a bomber along the radio signal to the target. Once that bomber had hit the target, other bombers could see it.
- **Fighter cover improved.** From 1943, Britain fitted extra petrol tanks to fighter planes to increase their range to 3,000 km. From 1944, Britain also had a jet fighter – the Meteor – which could fly at 600mph. With better protection from fighter planes, more bombers reached their targets.
- **Bombing strategy changed.** At first, both sides used **strategic bombing** – this meant targeting key industries and military sites. From 1943, both sides turned to **area bombing** – this meant massive raids on cities to reduce civilian morale. In July 1943, in just four raids, the RAF used 3,000 bombers to drop 9,000 tons of bombs on the German city of Hamburg.
- **The atom bomb.** The USA and Britain began to pool scientists and military experts in 1940, to improve weapons. Overall, they spent two billion dollars and employed 125,000 people. Part of their work was the **Manhattan Project**, which started in 1942 and produced the world's first atomic bomb.

Activities

1 Search the internet for '*Blitzkrieg* videos'. Discuss with a partner what changes you can see compared with First World War warfare.

2 Take notes on each of these questions.

   a How did weapons create a war of movement, 1939–40?

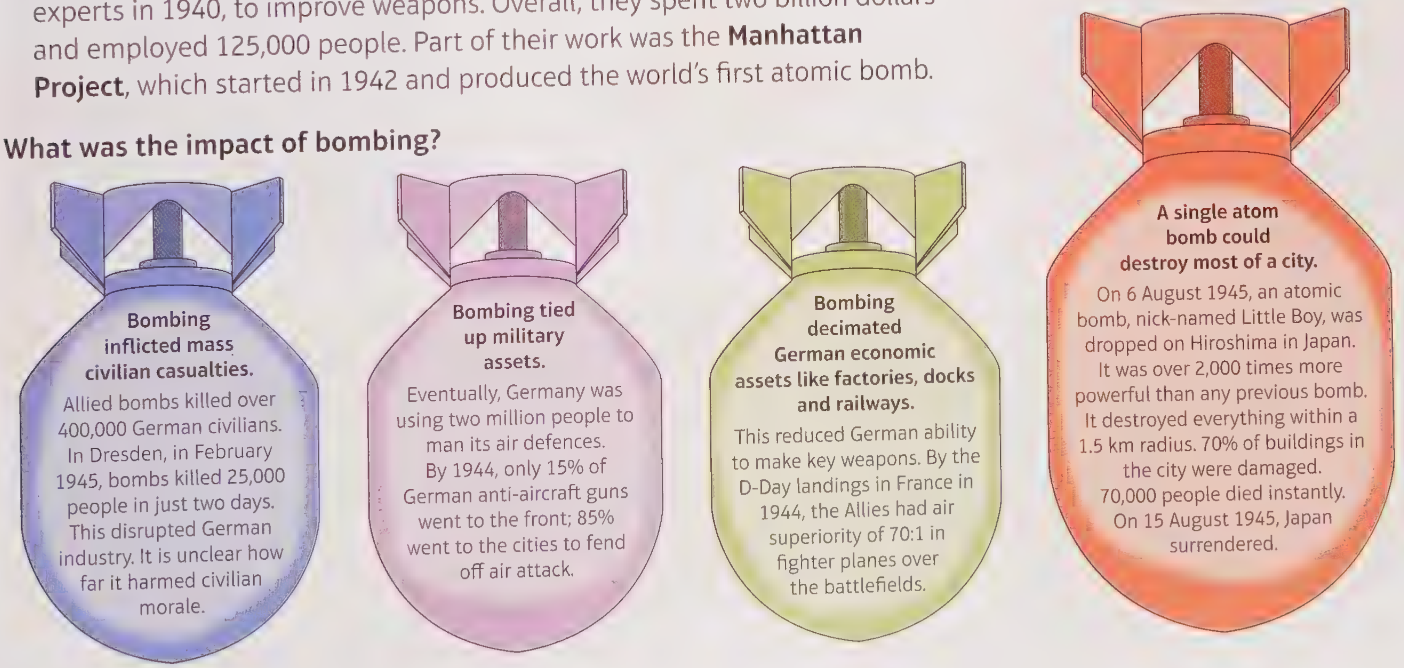
   b How did weapons and surveillance techniques create stalemate in warfare, 1940–43?

3 Bombing helped to change the course of the Second World War.

   a In a pair, take it in turns to list changes in bombing, 1939–45.

   b Now work out, between you, what the effects of these changes were on the course of the war. Write down the conclusions you come to.

What was the impact of bombing?



Bombing inflicted mass civilian casualties.
Allied bombs killed over 400,000 German civilians. In Dresden, in February 1945, bombs killed 25,000 people in just two days. This disrupted German industry. It is unclear how far it harmed civilian morale.

Bombing tied up military assets.
Eventually, Germany was using two million people to man its air defences. By 1944, only 15% of German anti-aircraft guns went to the front; 85% went to the cities to fend off air attack.

Bombing decimated German economic assets like factories, docks and railways.
This reduced German ability to make key weapons. By the D-Day landings in France in 1944, the Allies had air superiority of 70:1 in fighter planes over the battlefields.

A single atom bomb could destroy most of a city.
On 6 August 1945, an atomic bomb, nick-named Little Boy, was dropped on Hiroshima in Japan. It was over 2,000 times more powerful than any previous bomb. It destroyed everything within a 1.5 km radius. 70% of buildings in the city were damaged. 70,000 people died instantly. On 15 August 1945, Japan surrendered.

Figure 4.5 The impact of bombing, 1942–45.

Total warfare and wars of attrition

The two major wars since 1900 – the First and Second World Wars – had long periods of stalemate. At these times, weapons like the machine gun and radar prevented either side from defeating the other. Both wars dragged on – becoming examples of 'total warfare' and wars of attrition.

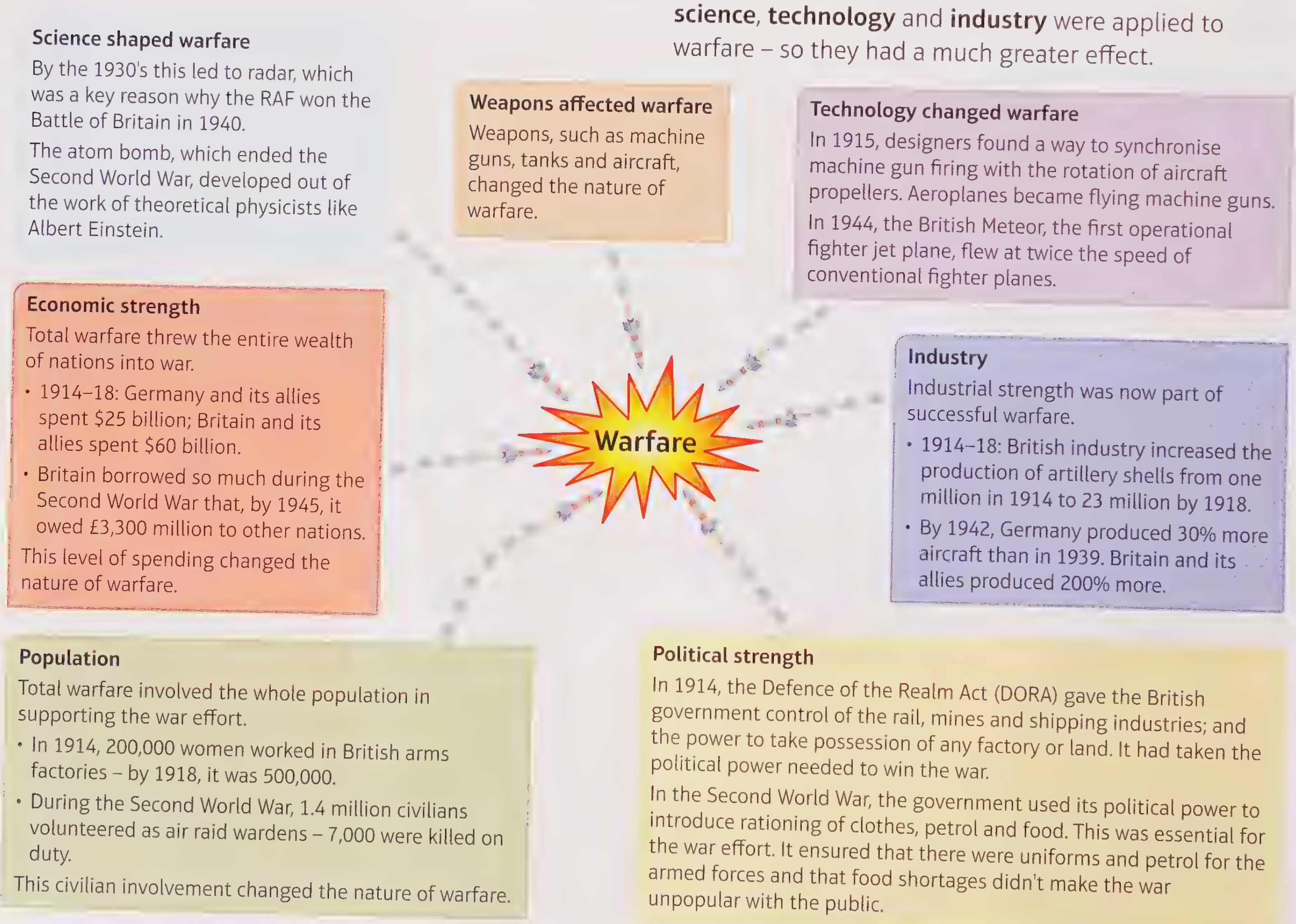
Total warfare

Medieval states fought limited warfare. Commanders tried to avoid battles, preferring to outmanoeuvre their opponents or besiege key towns and then negotiate for peace. When battles were fought, they involved limited resources. Armies were relatively small, funds for weapons were limited, and fighting was often restricted to the summer months.

The two World Wars were examples of total warfare. To break the stalemate, countries used all the powers at their disposal to defeat the enemy.

- They increased the political powers of the state to become more efficient fighting machines.
- They involved their whole population in the war effort.
- They used all their scientific, technological and industrial resources.
- They spent vast sums of money.
- They attacked all the resources of the enemy – even targeting civilians. In the Second World War, many more civilians died than soldiers.

Factors such as science, technology and economic strength all had an impact on warfare *before* 1900. Developing gunpowder, designing cannon, and raising taxes to pay for wars are all examples. But in total warfare, after 1900, the full force of factors such as **science**, **technology** and **industry** were applied to warfare – so they had a much greater effect.



Science shaped warfare

By the 1930's this led to radar, which was a key reason why the RAF won the Battle of Britain in 1940.

The atom bomb, which ended the Second World War, developed out of the work of theoretical physicists like Albert Einstein.

Weapons affected warfare

Weapons, such as machine guns, tanks and aircraft, changed the nature of warfare.

Technology changed warfare

In 1915, designers found a way to synchronise machine gun firing with the rotation of aircraft propellers. Aeroplanes became flying machine guns.

In 1944, the British Meteor, the first operational fighter jet plane, flew at twice the speed of conventional fighter planes.

Economic strength

Total warfare threw the entire wealth of nations into war.

- 1914–18: Germany and its allies spent $25 billion; Britain and its allies spent $60 billion.
- Britain borrowed so much during the Second World War that, by 1945, it owed £3,300 million to other nations.

This level of spending changed the nature of warfare.

Industry

Industrial strength was now part of successful warfare.

- 1914–18: British industry increased the production of artillery shells from one million in 1914 to 23 million by 1918.
- By 1942, Germany produced 30% more aircraft than in 1939. Britain and its allies produced 200% more.

Population

Total warfare involved the whole population in supporting the war effort.

- In 1914, 200,000 women worked in British arms factories – by 1918, it was 500,000.
- During the Second World War, 1.4 million civilians volunteered as air raid wardens – 7,000 were killed on duty.

This civilian involvement changed the nature of warfare.

Political strength

In 1914, the Defence of the Realm Act (DORA) gave the British government control of the rail, mines and shipping industries; and the power to take possession of any factory or land. It had taken the political power needed to win the war.

In the Second World War, the government used its political power to introduce rationing of clothes, petrol and food. This was essential for the war effort. It ensured that there were uniforms and petrol for the armed forces and that food shortages didn't make the war unpopular with the public.

Figure 4.6 Factors affecting warfare, 1900–45.

War of attrition

In total warfare, each side hopes to have more resources than its opponents. If military stalemate prevents quick victory on the battlefield, the aim is then to wear the opposition down – until the enemy runs out of troops, weapons, industrial resources, money or morale. This is a war of attrition.

Wars of attrition often create great suffering.

- In the First World War, about ten million combatants died.
- In the Second World War, about 15 million combatants died – and about 45 million civilians.

In wars of attrition, victory often comes from the collapse of the enemy rather than its military defeat.

- By the end of the First World War, Germany was running out of food. In 1917 alone, 250,000 Germans died of food shortages; and in January 1918, four million Germans protested in the streets. Eventually, the government collapsed. Germany surrendered, but the army claimed that it was never defeated.
- In the Second World War, Germany suffered four-and-a-half million dead and eight million wounded. This was half its adult male population in 1939! It was the defeat of a nation as much as the defeat of an army.

Chemical warfare

Total warfare involves using all weapons at your disposal against any target. An example of this is chemical weapons in the First World War. Before 1900, chemical warfare was limited to ideas like poisoning water supplies. But, in April 1915, German troops released chlorine gas onto French trenches from 5,000 canisters – 1,250 troops were killed. Soon, British and French troops retaliated.

The military benefit of gas attacks proved to be small during the war: wind made its effects uncertain and gas masks provided protection. However, it struck fear into troops.

- By 1918, 146 attacks had occurred – mainly chlorine, phosgene and mustard.
- Over 90,000 soldiers were killed, and one million injured, by gas attacks.

Gas attacks kill in a variety of ways: chlorine and phosgene prevent people from breathing; mustard gas blisters the skin; nerve agents, like sarin, choke people by paralysing the lungs.

There has been some chemical warfare since 1918. In the 1930s, mustard gas was used by Italy against Ethiopians and by Japan against Chinese troops. In the 1980s, Iraq used chemical agents against Iranian and Kurdish civilians. But most nations have now agreed not to use chemical warfare.

- In 1925, 16 major nations signed the **Geneva Protocol**, pledging never again to use gas as a weapon. This was the first of several international agreements.
- The **Chemical Weapons Convention**, signed by 190 nations, began in 1997. It bans the storage or use of chemical weapons. Since then, 85% of stored chemical weapons have been destroyed.

Activities ?

1 Write a one-line definition of **a** total warfare and **b** war of attrition.

2 Write these headings: **Government**, **Population**, **Science**, **Technology**, **Industry**, **Money**, **New Weapons**
List, under each heading, the ways each one influenced warfare, 1900–45.

3 Hold a class debate to decide which factor was the biggest influence on warfare, 1900–45. What was the outcome of the debate – and why?

Extend your knowledge

According to the United Nations website, the 1925 Geneva Protocol came about because of 'public outrage' against the use of chemical weapons. And the governments of 98% of the world's population have signed the 1997 Chemical Weapons Convention.

These are examples of the way that **attitudes in society** can affect warfare.

Discuss with a friend why you think that the public seems so opposed to chemical warfare, but tolerates other types of warfare, like bombing.

The impact of changes in weaponry, transport and surveillance since 1945

Nuclear warfare

Other major powers were quick to make weapons like the atom bomb, dropped at Hiroshima in 1945.

- The Soviet Union exploded its first atomic bomb in 1949.
- By 2015, there were nine nuclear powers, with about 15,000 nuclear warheads in total.
- In 2015, Britain had about 200 nuclear warheads.

But, nuclear weapons have not been used since 1945. This is due to the **MAD** principle (**Mutually Assured Destruction**). Any state using a nuclear weapon to destroy an enemy, would also be destroyed if their enemy launched a nuclear counter-attack. This has created a new kind of stalemate.

So nuclear weapons have not created a new form of warfare; but other changes since 1945 have.

High-technology military equipment

Since 1945, advances in science and technology have changed the world.

- Everyday objects, such as cars, now combine advances from a variety of technologies. Cars use digital information displays, satellites to navigate, and radio waves for remote locking.
- In exactly the same way, modern military equipment has been shaped by a variety of improvements in technology, including satellites, lasers, electronics and computers.

Infantry equipment

Modern infantry soldiers could be equipped with:

- body armour and a helmet, with night vision glasses and a personal radio
- an assault rifle with a telescopic sight, laser aiming and 30-round magazine
- a grenade launcher fitted to their rifles
- and, sometimes, a machine gun firing 1,800 metres at 750 rounds per minute.

Aerial support

Modern infantry have air support.

- They are transported around the battle area by helicopters. This is safer and quicker than using road vehicles. Merlin helicopters carry up to 45 armed troops, as well as armoured vehicles, and can even refuel in the air.
- The support which cavalry traditionally gave to infantry is now provided by attack helicopters. The Apache helicopter has its own radar, video cameras, and thermal imaging sights for surveillance, to identify enemy troops and tanks. It carries guns, and air-to-air and air-to-ground missiles.
- The British Army currently has over 500 helicopters.

Artillery and bombing

Bombarding the enemy, traditionally the role of artillery, is now done in a variety of ways.

- **Inter-Continental Ballistic Missiles (ICBMs)** have a range of over 5,500 km. They carry nuclear or conventional warheads and can be fired from land, ships, submarines or even lorries. In 2016, Britain had four nuclear submarines, each armed with 16 Trident ballistic missiles.
- 'Stealth' bombers have been developed that are difficult to spot on radar. They cost $2 billion each.
- Modern fighter jets can also deliver bombs. The British Typhoon jet flies at 1,300mph and at 17,000 metres above ground level. Its missiles and bombs can be guided by laser beams and GPS satnav systems.
- Whereas half of 'dumb' bomb drops tend to land over 100 metres away from the target, half of 'smart' guided bombs will land within only 10 metres of the target.
- Drones – remote-controlled aircraft, without pilots – can also be used to deliver bombs.
- Fixed artillery pieces have been replaced by mobile artillery vehicles, rather like tanks. They travel at up to 30mph and fire satellite-controlled missiles.

Figure 4.7 High-technology military equipment.

Satellites – high-tech surveillance

Before 1900, surveillance of enemy troops relied on simple technologies like telescopes and (occasionally) balloons. After 1900, surveillance from aircraft became possible. But in 1957, the first artificial satellites were sent into space to circle the Earth. Surveillance from space became possible.

By the year 2000, over 2,000 satellites were in space; among these were military satellites belonging to all the major military powers. During wars in Iraq in 1991 and 2003, satellites were used to:

- locate enemy troops and military targets
- predict weather conditions for planned military action
- photograph damage inflicted by attacks
- provide communication, with and between, troop units.

Impact of technology on tactics

In recent wars, there has been a clear tactical pattern in the use of high-technology weapons to attack enemy positions. (For details of the 2003 Iraq War, see page 122.)

- First, ICBMs and aircraft have been used to bombard enemy positions.
- Then, helicopters and motorised vehicles have been used to deliver infantry to the battlefield.
- Tanks, jets, attack helicopters and mobile artillery have been used to support infantry.

Impact of technology on strategy

In 1940, *Blitzkrieg* attacks won ground by giving freedom to local commanders to punch through enemy defences, then use their own judgement about harming enemy positions. But by the 1990s, it was clear that high-technology equipment was more effective when co-ordinated.

Western powers developed the '**Revolution in Military Affairs**' (RMA). This involves commanders at headquarters controlling the fighting. From their headquarters, many miles from the battlefield, they control fighting by co-ordinating:

- information and surveillance from satellites
- computer, video and radio communication with troops on the ground
- satellite-guided weapons, and video footage of the damage inflicted by them.

Source B

British troops with a Puma and a Chinook helicopter on the Iraq border in 2003.

Impact on warfare (1): asymmetric warfare

Asymmetric wars are 'unequal' wars, between well-armed and less well-armed opponents. They are not new. The Battle of Falkirk (1298) and the Boer War (1899–1902) are examples of asymmetric conflicts mentioned earlier. But modern weapons have made asymmetric conflicts more common, for two key reasons:

- **Cost** – high technology equipment is expensive. A single British Challenger II tank costs four million pounds; a typhoon fighter jet costs 80 million. Only the most wealthy countries can afford to be well armed.
- **MAD** – today, war between two well-armed states would mean mutually assured destruction. So, since 1945, powerful states have only gone to war with less powerful ones.

Impact on warfare (2): guerrilla warfare

Asymmetric wars do not mean that the most well-armed nation wins. Recent wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, show that powerful states can use heavy bombing and rapid deployment of infantry to capture territory; but taking military control of that territory is harder.

Less-well armed forces in asymmetric wars sometimes use **guerrilla warfare** against enemy troops occupying their land. They are often unofficial armies, without uniforms to identify them, who can hide amongst local civilians. They avoid major battles and rely upon hit-and-run raids by small groups. Conventional tactics (like bombing) and weapons (like tanks) are not as effective in guerrilla warfare. As one commentator has said: 'You can't win a guerrilla war by dropping bombs from the air'.

THINKING HISTORICALLY Change and continuity (4b&c)

The bird's eye view

Development	Immediate changes	Medium-term changes	Long-term changes
Development of the atom bomb by the USA in 1945.		A nuclear stand-off between the USA and the USSR.	The proliferation of nuclear weapons to many countries.
		The constant threat of war during the Cold War.	The constant threat of nuclear terrorism.
		Huge financial expenditure on nuclear weapons.	Reduction in the number of nuclear weapons.

Imagine you are looking at the whole of history, using a zoomed-out interactive map like Google Maps™. You have a general view of the sweep of developments and their consequences, but you cannot see much detail. If you zoom in to the time of the development of the atom bomb, you can see the event in detail, but will know nothing of its consequences in the medium or long term.

Look at the table above and answer the following:

1 What were the immediate changes brought about by the development of the atom bomb in 1945? Write down at least two changes that could complete that column in the table.

2 Look at the medium-term changes and the long-term changes. How are they similar? How are they different?

3 Work in groups of three. Each take the role of the teacher for one of the above: the immediate changes, the medium-term changes, or the long-term changes. Give a short presentation to the other two students in your group, explaining the key changes over your timescale. They may comment and ask questions.

Now answer the following individually:

4 How was your explanation of change different to the other explanations? Write a short paragraph using examples from what you and the rest of your group said.

5 What happens to the detail, particularly of the medium-term and immediate changes, when you zoom out to look at the long-term changes?

6 What are the advantages and disadvantages of zooming in to look at a specific time in detail?

Activities

1 Write a one-line definition of **a** asymmetric warfare and **b** guerrilla warfare.

2 Play 'High-Tech Weapon Table Tennis'. Take it in turns to name a high-tech feature of modern weapons. Record your list as you go along.

3 Write a sentence to describe each of the ways that high-technology weapons can be used to attack an enemy in modern warfare.

4 As a class, discuss this proposition: 'Tanks and aircraft are like modern cavalry'. Write a paragraph on the outcome of your discussion.

Exam-style question, Section B

'The impact of new weapons and military equipment since 1900 has been to strengthen attacking forces'.

How far do you agree? Explain your answer.

You may use the following in your answer:

- light field artillery
- radar.

You **must** also use information of your own. **16 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis and evaluation of consequence.

You should write your answer as a structured **argument**, setting out a series of points for and against the proposition. You must also make sure that you include **ideas of your own** to add to the examples given in the question. And you must give **evidence** or **examples** to support each point you make.

Summary

- The British standing army remained small in peacetime and fell in size over time – its size spiked during major wars.
- Infantry no longer dominates numbers in the army – specialist troops are more important.
- Weapons, military transport, and surveillance methods, have changed rapidly since 1900 – and extremely rapidly since 1945.
- Changes in weapons, transport, and surveillance methods, caused wars to swing between stalemate and movement.
- Warfare since 1900 has included wars of movement, total warfare, wars of attrition, and guerrilla warfare.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Describe, in detail, changes in the size and composition of the army since 1900.

S2 Describe, in detail, the army specialist units for logistics and bomb disposal.

S3 Describe changes in weapons, military transport and surveillance since 1900.

S4 Describe the impact of those changes in weapons, transport and surveillance.

If you are not confident about any of these, look up answers in pages 99–110 of the book.

Challenge

C1 Weigh up the impact on warfare, since 1900, of various factors, such as weapons, science, technology, industry, governments.

If you are unsure about any of these, try the activities on pages 103, 105, 107 and 111.

4.2 The experience of war, 1900–present

Learning outcomes

- Understand changes to recruitment and training, conscription and professionalisation.
- Understand the impact of war on civilians in the period, including censorship and reporting.

Recruitment and training

From volunteers to conscription

In 1914, the British Expeditionary Force sent to fight the First World War numbered 120,000 men. But the German army soon rose to 1.5 million.

Britain's first solution was to appeal for volunteers. At first, it worked. By the end of 1914, over one million men had volunteered. But the scale of casualties soon became clear. Over a quarter-of-a-million Allied troops died in just one week during the Battle of the Marne in September 1914. So by 1915, as the realities of war became known, the number of new volunteers fell.

In early 1915, only 7,000 men were volunteering per week. But, as fighting became worse, 35,000 volunteers per week were needed just to replace casualties. And many men who were not in key jobs, like munitions or mining, were still not volunteering.

As a result, in January 1916, the **Military Service Act** introduced **conscription** – compulsory enlistment. Compulsion to serve in war was not new – but in previous wars, service was for short periods and usually close to home. Also, 20th-century administration was more thorough, so very few people slipped through the net.

- Conscription made all unmarried men, aged 18–41, liable for service in the armed forces. In May 1916, the Act was extended to married men. The sick, or those in key jobs, could be excused.
- From 1916 to 1918, a total of 3.5 million men were conscripted into the armed forces.

In 1918, conscription ended and Britain returned to a volunteer army. But, in 1939, when the Second World War began, it was clear that a volunteer army would not be enough. So conscription returned.

- In September 1939, the **National Service Act** made all men, aged 18–41, liable for conscription.
- Over one million men were conscripted into the British Army in 1939 alone – it was not enough.
- In December 1941, there was a significant change. Conscription was extended to men up to 51, but also, for the first time, to women, aged 20–30. Only unmarried women were called up. They could choose between enlistment into the armed forces or another kind of war effort, such as in a factory or civil defence.
- In 1943, the upper age limit for women was increased to 51; and some younger women were not allowed to choose alternatives to service in the armed forces.

Attitudes towards conscientious objectors

When conscription was introduced, some people refused the 'call-up', either on moral grounds (like pacifists), or on religious grounds (like Quakers). They were forced to appear before military tribunals (courts) to justify their objections. Most objections failed. Some objectors were imprisoned; others agreed to enlist or accept non-fighting roles.

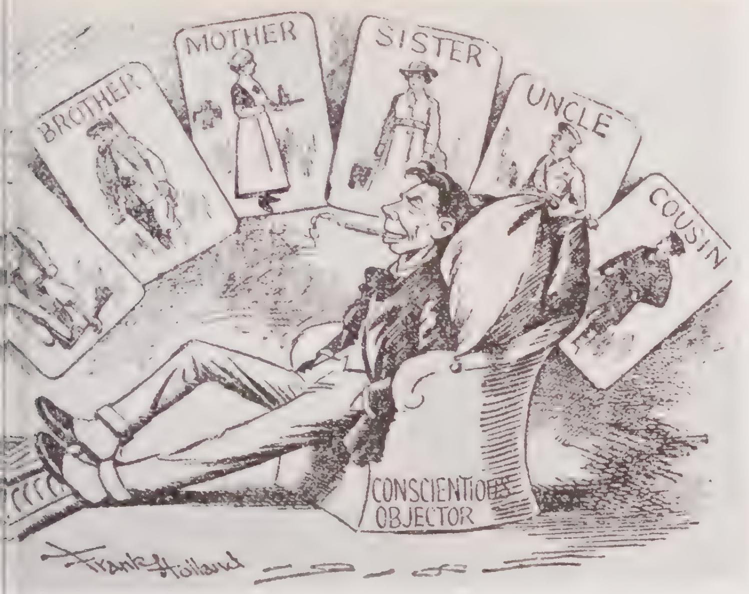
	Conscientious objectors	Forced to enlist or given non-fighting role	Sent to prison
First World War	16,600	About 9,500	About 7,000
Second World War	60,000	About 50,000 (3,000 objections accepted)	About 6,000

During the First World War, attitudes to conscientious objectors were generally negative. There were exceptions, but often 'COs' (as they were called) were treated harshly. In one Home Office prison, ten COs died in the prison, 63 died soon after release, and 31 suffered mental breakdowns because of their experiences.

Attitudes improved slightly during the Second World War (as the figures in the table above suggest), but not much. Many county councils, for example, sacked any teachers who declared themselves to be conscientious objectors.

Source A

A cartoon from 1918, illustrating the opinion that some people had of conscientious objectors.



National Service

When the Second World War ended in 1945, conscription did not immediately stop. Instead, in 1948, it was scaled down and 'National Service' was required instead. This meant that, in order to maintain the potential of a strong army, all men aged 17–21 had to complete 18 months of military training and service in the armed forces, then serve in the Army Reserve for four years.

Conscription finally ended in 1960, and Britain returned to a permanent standing army of volunteers.

Women in the armed forces

During the World Wars, women were accepted into the British Army. This was partly because 'total war' required countries to use all their resources – including women. But social change was also a factor which made the recruitment of women possible. The place of women in society was slowly changing before the First World War; this made the idea of women in the army more acceptable.

This pattern of change worked both ways. Once women were accepted into the army, this forced people to regard women differently. So the role of women in society was never quite the same after the two World Wars as it had been before.

At first, women served in separate all-female units. But separate women's army corps came to an end in 1992, when women and men were integrated into the same units.

By 2015, women were serving in most roles in the British Army on an equal basis with men. In Afghanistan, in 2008, one in six British troops was a woman, some flying army attack helicopters. However, they were still not able to apply for roles in the infantry or the Royal Armoured Corps, including the Tank Regiment.

Modern professional armed forces

Britain currently has a regular Army of just under 85,000 troops. With the RAF and the Royal Navy, its total permanent, full-time military force is about 150,000. Modern warfare involves high-technology equipment, so the modern army aims to be a highly trained, professional force.

- Army recruits sign up for at least four years. Their basic initial training lasts 14 weeks. Stage 2 training for specialist units lasts up to a year more.
- Over 80% of officers enter the army as university graduates. Officer training lasts about one year.
- Pay and conditions are intended to compete with other types of employment. In 2015, the starting salary for a corporal in the army was £27,000, just above the average national wage. Officers earned from £30,000 to £100,000 per year.

Activities

1 Draw a timeline from 1900 to the present day.
  a Above your timeline, mark the key events in recruitment to the army, giving brief details.
  b Below the line, mark the key events for women in the army, giving brief details.

2 Look at the text, the table and the cartoon (above) about conscientious objectors.
  a In general, what was the attitude towards conscientious objectors between 1914 and 1945?
  b What slight change in attitude occurred? Use the text and the table to support your answer.

3 Did changing views about the role of women in society help cause their recruitment into the army, or did the recruitment cause changes in views about women? Discuss and then explain your opinion.

The impact of war upon civilians

Civilians who enlisted died in large numbers

Changes in recruitment had a big impact on civilians. Before 1900, a small number of people served in the army – and none since medieval times were legally forced to. During both World Wars, it became the norm for men to be forced to enlist – to leave homes and families, go abroad, and face death on a daily basis.

Because of the huge size of armies in the World Wars, many conscripted citizens died.

- In the First World War, 70 million men fought (worldwide) and nine million died. In Britain, six million fought and 700,000 died. That is a death rate of about 12%; and the risk of injury was much higher still.
- Even more suffered in the Second World War. Estimates vary wildly: a conservative estimate is that 15 million combatants died and 25 million were wounded. About 450,000 British troops died.

Civilians who did not enlist also died in large numbers

Changes in the nature of warfare since 1900 meant that it was not just the civilians who enlisted that died in the fighting. The development of bombing, for example, increased civilian deaths at home.

- Only 1,414 people in Britain were killed by German bombs in the whole of the First World War.
- About 40,000 British civilians were killed in 'the Blitz' (German bombing), 1940–41.
- Almost 200,000 civilians were killed by just two atom bombs at Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

This trend has continued. Historically, wars have sometimes involved cities – sieges were a key part of medieval warfare, for example. But, modern wars are much more likely to involve attacks on cities or fighting in cities. As a result, for example, over 100,000 civilians died in the conflict in Iraq from 2003–2010.

Percentage of civilian deaths in warfare	
Before 1900	5% of casualties
First World War	15% of casualties
Second World War	65% of casualties
Wars in the 1990s	90% of casualties

Source B

A British Second World War propaganda poster showing a woman operating anti-aircraft equipment.

Fighting on the Home Front changed civilian lives

Change in warfare has also involved civilians in the process of war. In the Second World War, for example:

- **The Home Guard**, a volunteer, part-time military force (sometimes known as 'Dad's Army'), was formed in 1940 to protect Britain in the event of invasion. By 1941, 1.6 million civilian men had joined.
- **The Civil Defence** was formed in 1941. It combined air-raid wardens and firefighters. By 1945, 1.4 million civilians were air-raid wardens and 7,000 Civil Defence staff had been killed on duty.
- **The Women's Voluntary Service** (WVS) was part of the Civil Defence. It helped with air-raid precautions and assisted those affected by bombing. It had one million civilian members by 1941.

Living on the Home Front changed civilian lives

Changes in the nature of warfare also had an impact on the daily lives of citizens.

Rationing In both World Wars, both sides deliberately tried to cut off food supplies to the enemy.	• During the First World War, in April 1917, Britain only had six weeks' worth of wheat stores left. Rationing was introduced in January 1918. The Second World War was only six months old when Britain introduced rationing again, in January 1940. • Rationing meant that people had limited food: e.g. less than 1lb of meat per person, per week in 1918. But in Britain, at least food was shared out fairly and did not run out. Unlike in Germany, where 750,000 civilian deaths were attributed to starvation.
Homelessness The targeting of cities in modern warfare also drives civilians from their homes.	• During 'the Blitz', 1940–41, two million British homes were destroyed and 1.5 million mothers and children had to be evacuated to safer areas in the countryside. • Ten years after the Iraq War of 2003, there were still over one million Iraqi civilians displaced from their homes by the war. Worldwide, in 2014, 60 million people were homeless because of wars.
Loss of freedom Warfare since 1900 has also sometimes deprived citizens of basic freedoms.	• In 1914, the **Defence of the Realm Act (DORA)**, in Britain, banned even basic activities such as purchasing binoculars, flying kites or lighting bonfires. • In both World Wars, British workers could be moved from their existing jobs and given work in any job the government decided.

The fear of nuclear war

By 1949, the two dominant 'superpowers' – the USA and the USSR – both had nuclear weapons. There was constant tension between them, which became known as '**The Cold War**'. This meant that, for decades after 1945, people worried about nuclear war. In Britain, air-raid sirens were routinely tested and civil defence films were shown in cinemas and schools into the 1960s. Nuclear defence booklets, like *Protect and Survive*, were issued to the public as late as the 1980s. The year 1962 – when the USA and the USSR argued over Cuba – was an especially tense time.

Fears only began to recede in the 1970s. The **Strategic Arms Limitation Treaty**, in 1972, began the process of reducing nuclear weapons. But, with about 15,000 nuclear weapons still in existence, the fear still exists of a nuclear accident, a nuclear war, or a nuclear incident involving terrorists.

Activity ?

Discuss with a friend the impact of warfare, since 1900, on civilians.

Weigh up the benefits and costs.

Record what, on balance, you decide.

Incidental benefits

In the longer term, warfare since 1900 has also brought some benefits.

Women in society

Women working equally with men in a variety of jobs, and joining the armed forces, helped to challenge social views about the role of women.

Medical benefits

Some medical improvements occurred much more quickly because of the need to treat large numbers of casualties. Civilians eventually benefitted from progress during the World Wars, through treatments like blood transfusions, X-rays, penicillin and plastic surgery.

Social reforms

During warfare, Britain became more used to the idea of government controlling the basic needs of life, such as food and jobs. So, when the World Wars ended, the British public expected the government to continue to look after those kinds of basic needs. This paved the way for reforms such as:

- the 1919 Housing Act, which led to council houses for the poor
- the 1944 Education Act, which provided free primary and secondary education for all
- the 1946 National Health Service Act, which provided free healthcare for the whole of the UK.

The increase of war reporting

The reporting of warfare has changed greatly since 1900.

- **At the start of the First World War in 1914**, only one journalist was allowed to report directly from the battlefield. He was an army officer, Colonel Swinton, with the code name 'Eyewitness'. It was only in November 1916 that five selected journalists were allowed to visit the front line.
- **By the Iraq War of 2003**, 700 reporters were 'embedded' amongst Coalition (mostly US and UK) troops. They lived and worked alongside soldiers, sharing their food and accommodation and, at times, coming under fire. In addition to these, many more journalists reported independently, working amongst the local communities in war zones.

One reason for the change is new **technology**.

- **In 1900**, reporters relied upon couriers and the electric telegraph to get reports back to Britain. It was not easy to report from a battlefield.
- **Since 1900**, the introduction of radio, films, television with live satellite links, mobile phones and the internet have changed reporting. Reporters – or even members of the public – can report events as they occur. So reporting about the events of a war is now much easier.

The other reason for the increase in reporting is a change in **attitudes in society** towards censorship.

Censorship

Censorship means limiting the flow of information to the public. During warfare, information is often limited to keep morale high and to prevent useful information falling into the hands of the enemy.

Sometimes, newspapers 'self-censor' – they make news sound better than it really is – because they think it's the patriotic thing to do. See Source C, for example.

Sometimes, the government restricts information.

- For example, during the First World War, 10,000 people were employed to read and censor soldiers' letters home.
- Newspapers that criticised the war – like *The Call* and *The Tribunal* – were closed several times.

Source C

The *Daily Chronicle* newspaper report on casualties on the first day of the Battle of the Somme in 1916, when **60,000** British troops were killed or wounded.

Ground was gained at great loss of life to the enemy, though not without many casualties to ourselves. Fortunately the proportion of lightly wounded men was wonderfully high.

But, today, new technology means that governments have to accept that much more information will become public. In 1991, reporters in Iraq told television viewers about Coalition bombing of Baghdad even before the start of the war was officially announced.

So, the public today get more information about warfare.

And this information is more balanced than before. Sometimes it is even critical about the conduct of the war. See Source D, for example.

Source D

A *Guardian* newspaper report in 2006 on an incident of 'friendly fire' in the Iraq War.

A Royal Marine killed in Iraq (in 2003) by a missile fired by British forces was "let down" by the failings of his senior officers, a coroner ruled today. [He]... listed a series of mistakes by commanders, which led to the death of Marine Christopher Maddison.

However, the information in the media is still not completely uncensored.

- Embedded reporters in Iraq in 2003 were escorted everywhere by officers and had to show their reports to military personnel before they were allowed to publish them.
- Journalists still sometimes present reports that favour their own side. During the Iraq War, British journalists were much more likely to report enthusiasm about the war than criticism from the Iraqi public; and casualties suffered by Iraqi civilians were only belatedly reported.

Propaganda

Some information about wars is propaganda – information deliberately used to influence public opinion.

- **In the First World War**, government posters boosted recruitment, and patriotic films were made about the war. The most famous was *The Battle of the Somme*, which was shown in 2,000 cinemas in 1916.
- **In the Second World War**, a new radio station, *The Forces Programme*, transmitted radio reports about the war. Usually it was factually accurate, but the reports put an optimistic slant on the news. For example, the British retreat from Dunkirk, in 1940, was reported as a heroic escape, rather than the result of defeat.

Attitudes in society change warfare

Attitudes towards warfare have changed since 1900.

- In the early 1900s, jingoism was still strong. The public mostly supported war to promote British interests, and the First World War was met with enthusiasm. In September 1914, 30,000 men per day enlisted.
- Since 1945, however, public support for wars has declined. In 2003, one million people marched in London to oppose the Iraq War.

There are several reasons for this change in attitude.

- **The reporting of wars**: the public now have much more information about wars. For example, they watched, on live television, the first bombs fall on Baghdad at the start of the 2003 Iraq War. Due to media coverage, the public can see the damage and bloodshed caused by bombing and shelling.
- **The financial cost of warfare is greater**: Spitfires cost only £6,000 each, but Typhoon fighters cost £80 million each. Keeping Britain's Trident nuclear missiles costs £2.4 billion per year. Some people think this money should be spent on other things.
- **The human cost of war is greater**: before 1900, Britain's wars were fought abroad, by relatively small armies. Casualties were counted in thousands. By 1945, the Second World War's casualties were counted in millions. In modern warfare, many more of the casualties are civilians.

These **new attitudes in society** about warfare have become a **factor for change** in warfare. Wars fought in the knowledge that the public will not tolerate high casualties are fought differently.

- The bombing of Dresden and Hiroshima (1945) were intended to cause **maximum** casualties.
- But in modern times, the use of drones (unmanned aircraft) and 'smart' bombs are examples of modern warfare methods which are meant to **minimise** casualties.

Governments must listen to public pressure, because in modern society the public have many opportunities – through the press, on television, in social media and at elections – to make their opinions known.

Source E

The bodies of five British soldiers, killed in action, are returned home. Scenes such as this were common on television and in newspapers during recent conflicts. Modern media coverage both reflects and increases public concern for casualties.

Activities

1 On a sheet of A4 paper, set out two text boxes to answer these questions in note form.
   a How has public information about warfare changed since 1900?
   b Why have these changes occurred?

2 Write a list of the kind of things which the public now know about wars which might affect their attitude towards warfare.

3 Have social attitudes towards warfare changed warfare itself? Give everyone in your class a chance to have their say. Then write a summary of what they think.

Extend your knowledge

Search online for video of '*the BBC 10 o'clock News announcing the Iraq War 2003*'. What impressions does it give you about the reporting of modern warfare?

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain **one** way in which the impact of wars on civilians was different after 1900 than in the 19th century. **4 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests knowledge and understanding of difference, features and characteristics.

1 The answer should **identify** an example of a difference.

2 The answer must **analyse** the difference, comparing the old and new situations.

3 The answer should consistently give **evidence** or **examples** for all the statements it makes.

Extra tip

You could replace the word 'different' in the exam-style question above with the word 'similar' and use this new version of the question for exam practice.

Summary

- For two periods (1916–18 and 1939–60), civilians were conscripted into Britain's regular army. Some people became conscientious objectors.
- Women became part of the regular army for the first time.
- The impact of warfare on civilians increased because of developments such as bombing and nuclear weapons.
- Reporting about warfare in the media changed greatly, partly because of new technology, like televisions and mobile phones. Censorship and propaganda had an impact at times.
- Recent reporting has revealed more information about warfare, changing public attitudes towards it.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Describe, in detail, the impact on civilians of changes in recruitment since 1900.

S2 Describe the impact on civilians – good and bad – of changes in warfare since 1900.

S3 Describe how reporting of wars has changed since 1900, and how this has affected attitudes towards warfare.

S4 Describe censorship and propaganda during warfare since 1900.

If you are not confident about any of these, look up details on pages 112–118.

Challenge

C1 Weigh up which was the most significant change in warfare since 1900 and say why.

If you are not confident about this, discuss the changes on pages 112–118 with a friend and try to agree an answer.

4.3 The Western Front and the Battle of the Somme, 1916

Learning outcomes

- Understand the nature of trench warfare and wars of attrition in the First World War.
- Understand the reasons for the outcome of the Somme and the role of General Haig.

In 1914, the First World War soon became a stalemate. (See pages 102–103) By 1915, Allied and German trenches stretched for 600 km, in parallel lines, from the Belgian coast in the north, to the Swiss Alps in the south. For three more years, until 1918, the two sides fought each other, from their trenches, in a war of attrition – each unable to defeat the other. This was the **Western Front**.

The nature of trench warfare

Rival trenches were from 800 to only 50 metres from each other. **Front line** trenches were two metres deep and wide. **Support** trenches, for off-duty soldiers and supplies, were further back. **Reserve** trenches were further back still; troops were rested here and rushed to the front line if needed. Trenches were zigzagged, rather than dug in straight lines, so that the enemy could not fire along the whole length of them.

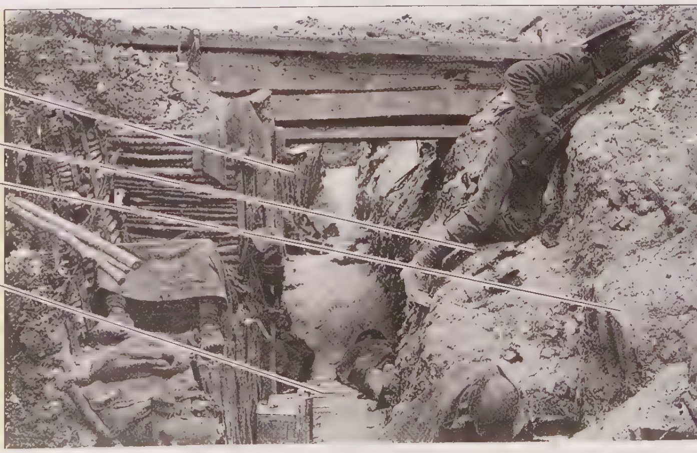
The area between rival trenches was '**no-man's land**'. It was strewn with barbed wire as protection. For almost four years, generals failed to find a way of capturing opposition trenches. Their only tactic was to order their men '**over the top**'. This involved masses of infantry walking across no-man's land towards enemy fire. It was clear that machine guns could easily mow down attackers. However, the generals had no other tactics – they just increased the numbers of men they sent over the top.

Artillery fire was used before massed attacks to weaken opposition defences. Some 70% of all casualties in the trenches were caused by artillery fire.

Life in the trenches

Life in the trenches had much in common with fighting throughout the ages. Conditions were harsh. Front-line troops lived in dug-outs, 20 metres behind the front line. Fear of going over the top was the sharpest worry, but there were everyday problems.

- Daily routines of sentry duty and cleaning weapons were tedious.
- Soldiers complained of the mud, the cold and the lack of sleep.
- Stagnant water and rats spread disease, causing **diarrhoea** and **dysentery**.
- Constant cold, damp, unsanitary conditions led to an infection called **trench foot**.
- Lice were a frequent irritant and caused **trench fever**. This involved severe headaches and sore limbs, and it took a month to recover. About 25% of troops in the trenches caught it.
- Another problem was **shell shock** – a condition caused by constant shelling. It could cause uncontrollable weeping or shaking, loss of speech, or even physical paralysis. Medical treatment was patchy. Shell shock was not well understood and some sufferers were treated as cowards.
- Treatment of wounds improved. Tetanus injections and sodium hypochlorite (a form of bleach) reduced infections. Blood transfusions also improved. Even so, 25% of the wounded died.



The sides of this British trench were lined with wood.

Soldiers stood on the fire step to see the enemy.

Steps enabled soldiers to go 'over the top' when they attacked.

The mud at the bottom of the trench was covered with duckboards.

If troops did reach enemy trenches, fighting reverted to age-old, hand-to-hand combat; though flame throwers and hand grenades were also used to clear trenches.

Figure 4.8 A British trench on the Western Front, showing typical features of trench warfare at the time.

The Battle of the Somme, 1916

The British general commanding the British Expeditionary Force was **Earl Haig**. In 1916, he planned an assault on German trenches near the River Somme. His preparation for the main assault included:

- the Royal Flying Corps shooting down German observation balloons
- gas attacks on German lines at 40 different places
- a seven-day heavy artillery bombardment of German lines, firing 1.7 million shells.

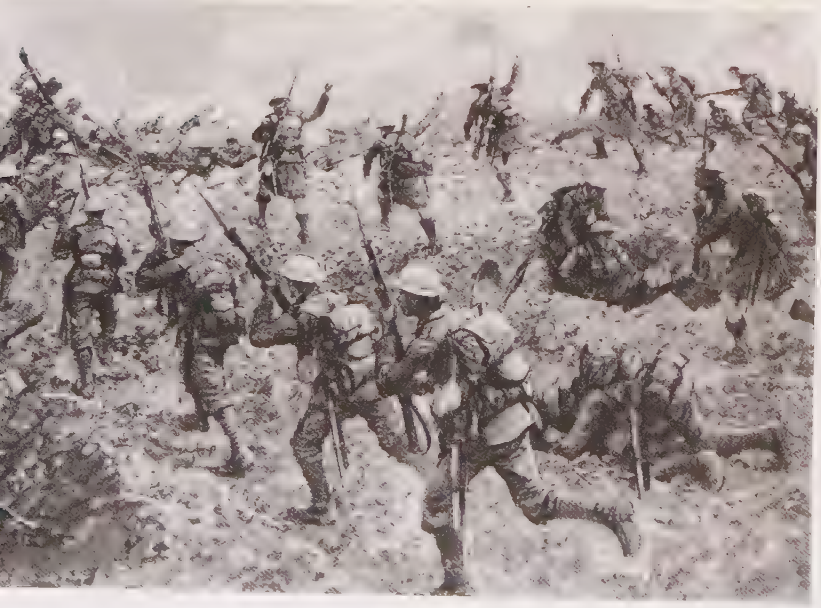
At **7.30am on 1 July**, 120,000 infantry left their trenches, went 'over the top' and, weighed down by 30 kg backpacks, advanced towards German lines at walking speed. A 'creeping barrage' of artillery shells was fired ahead of them, to clear their way as they advanced.

But the German defences remained intact. The attackers were shelled, and mown down by machine-gun fire. As the advance slowed, it fell well behind its artillery shield, becoming even more vulnerable.

By the end of the day, 20,000 British infantry were killed, and 40,000 were missing, wounded or captured. Half of the attackers were casualties; and only a handful reached enemy lines. The attack was a bloodbath.

Source A

Going over the top at the Battle of the Somme: a British trench at Ovilliers-la-Boiselle, July 1916, showing men of A Company, 11th Battalion, The Cheshire Regiment.



The outcome of the battle

The Somme offensive continued for five months. There were no changes to the overall strategy. However, Haig did allow some British generals, such as **Rawlinson**, to vary their tactics; they used smaller, carefully targeted attacks. In one assault, on **14 July**, 22,000 of Rawlinson's men pushed five km past the German front lines; but British reserves were slow to arrive and reinforce them, so they were forced to withdraw.

Gradually, some ground was won – but very little. Eventually, when fighting died down in November, losses were about even. Allied casualties were about 600,000 and German 500,000.

Source B

Henry Williamson was a junior officer who went over the top in the first wave of infantry at the Somme in 1916. In the 1920s he returned to the battlefield and then wrote a book about his memories of fighting on the Western Front. This is an extract from the section on the Battle of the Somme.

I see men arising and walking forward; I go forward with them... some seem to pause, with bowed heads, and sink carefully to their knees, and roll slowly over, and lie still. Others roll and roll, and scream and grip my legs in uttermost fear...

I go on... up and down across ground like a huge ruined honeycomb, and my wave [of men] melts away.

Source C

Tanks were first seen in battle when used by the British at the Somme on 15 September 1916. They were to become typical of First World War battles. A German war reporter, who was at the front at the time, wrote this:

When German troops crept out of their dug-outs... their blood chilled. Mysterious monsters were crawling towards them over the craters... Nothing stopped them... The word was passed... "The devil is coming"... flame leapt from the sides of the iron caterpillars... English infantry came in waves behind.

Reasons for the outcome of the Battle of the Somme

The main reason for the high casualty rate at the Somme was obvious. The first months of the war had clearly shown the dominance of defensive rifles, machine guns and artillery. So we should not be surprised that the British assault at the Somme cost so many lives. But there were other reasons too.

- The German trenches were strong: the soil in the area was chalky and soft. So they had 12 lines of parallel trenches and dugouts, nine metres underground, as protection from artillery fire.
- The barbed wire remained intact; as men milled around the unbroken wire, they were easy targets.
- There was no element of disguise or surprise: the artillery barrage made the assault obvious.
- The British infantry were raw volunteers from 1914 and 1915: not battle-hardened troops.
- The artillery barrage was too weak: about 30% of shells failed to explode; only 34 guns out of 1,500 were heavy artillery; only 7% were the high-explosive kind used to destroy barbed wire.
- Tanks were used ineffectively: they were scattered over a wide area and had no real impact.

The role of General Haig

General Haig is also often blamed for gaining so little – and at such high cost – at the Battle of the Somme.

Haig's critics say:	Haig's defenders say:
• He failed to learn from the failure of earlier massed infantry attacks. • He used new weapons, like tanks, badly and with little effect. • He ignored the advice of younger generals, such as Sir Henry Rawlinson, who argued for new tactics.	• Generals from every army believed that massed attacks would eventually work. • Haig could not *just* defend. He was under pressure to regain land lost. • Haig knew the Allies had to tie down hundreds of thousands of German troops at the Somme, to prevent them being sent to fight the French at Verdun. On 2 July, the day after the start of the Battle of the Somme, the Germans were forced to stop their offensive at Verdun. • The cold calculation was, that while the Allied deaths sustained were tragic, for Germany, a smaller power, they would eventually be disastrous. • New weapons, such as gas, aircraft and tanks, were not effective by 1916, so old tactics had to be used.

Activities ?

1 Make a list of details about the Battle of the Somme that you could use to illustrate examination answers about warfare during the First World War. Consider aspects such as: tactics, infantry assaults, and the use of gas, aircraft and tanks.

2 Divide the class in two and debate the motion: 'General Haig was to blame for gaining so little, at such high cost'. Record the outcome of the debate.

3 Look at the description of 'war of attrition' on page 107. Write down three ways in which the Battle of the Somme could be considered part of the war of attrition during the First World War?

Summary

- The Battle of the Somme illustrates typical features of warfare at that time.
- The Battle of the Somme illustrates the influence of individuals on warfare.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Identify features of the Battle of the Somme that are typical of warfare at the time.

Challenge

C1 Evaluate the role of General Haig in the Battle of the Somme.

If you are not sure, go back to the text in this section to find the details you need.

4.4 The Iraq War, 2003

Learning outcome

- Understand the reasons for the outcome of the Iraq War of 2003.
- Understand the role played by high-tech weaponry and surveillance in the battle.

In **March 2003**, a **Coalition of nations** – led by the USA and the UK – attacked Iraq. Their aims included removing Saddam Hussein, the Iraqi leader, and setting up a new Iraqi government.

- The first stage of the war went well for the Coalition. By the end of **April 2003**: Iraqi forces had been defeated; the Iraqi capital, Baghdad, was in Coalition hands; and Saddam Hussein was deposed.
- However, controlling Iraq and setting up a successful new government proved harder. Coalition troops became bogged down in a **guerrilla war**. It was **2011** before all Coalition forces left Iraq.

Strategy

The Coalition used a strategy of '**shock and awe**' (overwhelming military force) for the attack on Iraq. It consisted of **three parts**. There were two days of **preparing the battlefield**. Then, on 21 March, there was an **aerial bombardment** and, at the same time, a **ground attack**.

Extend your knowledge

CNN, the US news broadcaster, had cameras placed all over Iraq and reporters embedded with Coalition troops. As the attack began, they broadcast live pictures from Iraq, and a news conference from a US commander, explaining what was happening. You can watch the footage by searching the internet for 'Iraq War 2003 CNN YouTube'. Listen, especially, for information about high-tech weapons and embedded reporters.

Preparing the battlefield

Before the main air or ground attack, Iraqi defences were weakened.

- Two F-117 fighter aircraft dropped four EGBU-27s (precision-guided 900 kg bombs) on Iraqi leaders.
- 40 Tomahawk missiles were fired at Iraqi army bases and intelligence headquarters.
- Special forces (elite units trained to fight under difficult conditions) went into Iraq on reconnaissance missions. They destroyed Iraqi observation posts and seized an airport, a port, and gas and oil terminals. Several news reporters were embedded with these troops.

A Tomahawk cruise missile, fired by the US Navy, arcs its way towards Baghdad.

Air attack

During **March and April 2003**, there were daily raids on Iraqi targets.

- Aircraft flew bombing raids from captured airports, nearby naval ships and allied countries, including Britain. B-2 stealth bombers could fly in from the USA on 34-hour round trips.
- In total, about 30,000 bombs and missiles, including 1,000 cruise missiles, were used. About 70% of these were 'smart' weapons.
- Throughout the air attack, television crews reported live on the world news channels as bombs fell on Baghdad.

Ground attack

The ground attack also started on **21 March and lasted 21 days**.

- US ground troops had to cover about 1,000 km to reach Baghdad. It was captured by 9 April.
- UK ground troops targeted the city of Basra. Their attack began with an aircraft leaflet drop, urging Iraqi soldiers to surrender. Gazelle helicopters and Scimitar armoured vehicles were used for reconnaissance. Then, Lynx helicopters flew to selected positions to attack enemy positions; they were supported by tanks and Harrier jets. On one occasion, Coalition drones detected 21 incoming Iraqi tanks; they informed British headquarters, based at a secret location. Orders were given, and the tanks were destroyed by motorised British heavy artillery. Basra was under British control by 6 April.
- Overall, about 150,000 US soldiers and 45,000 British troops were involved in the invasion. Iraq had an army of about 650,000 troops and 650,000 reserves.

Figure 4.9 Strategy for the Coalition attack on Iraq.

High-tech weapons and surveillance in Iraq

The war in Iraq, in 2003, was dominated by high-tech weapons that are typical of modern warfare.

F-117 aircraft are stealth fighter-bombers. Their shape and radar-absorbent materials make them virtually undetectable by radar. They dropped the first bombs in the Iraq War in attacks on Iraqi leaders.

Britain's key fighter-bomber in Iraq was the RAF **Tornado**: 44 were used. 80% of the RAF bombs and missiles were 'smart'.

Paveway bombs are 'smart' bombs used by the UK. In normal conditions, they are dropped and then guided to the target along a laser beam. But, in heavy cloud, they can be directed to the target by GPS data – like the satnav in a car. Smart bombs are not completely accurate: about 60% of those dropped by F-117s missed the target.

Storm Shadows are cruise missiles used by British forces. Over 30 were used in the Iraq War. They are launched from aircraft. Smart missiles like the Storm Shadow can be guided to their targets by operators on the ground following video footage from cameras on the missile; or by heat sensors; or by following laser beams or GPS guidance.

Source D

A British Challenger tank in operation near Basra, in Iraq, in 2003.

Challengers are the UK's main tank. They travel up to 35mph, have night periscopes, laser-assisted guns, and can fire 8 shells per minute. On 27 March 2003, Challenger tanks were attacked by 120 Iraqi tanks and 59 artillery pieces. Reconnaissance helicopters spotted the attack and it was beaten off by Challengers and air support from UK fighters. Later that day, the Challengers destroyed 14 Iraqi tanks and four armoured personnel carriers in the biggest tank battle of the war.

Drones are unmanned planes. Drones are controlled by pilots on the ground using the drone's cameras. In Iraq, US **Predator drones** were 'flown' by US and UK pilots. Drones are for reconnaissance and bombing. On 23 March 2003, a Predator destroyed the main Iraqi anti-aircraft base. Since 2007, Britain has had its own armed drone – the **Reaper**.

Satellites

The Coalition had 50 satellites in space for the Iraq War. **Satnet 4** was the satellite network used by the UK over Iraq; it was recently upgraded for £2.5 billion. Satnet 4 intercepted Iraqi communications; gave British troops pictures of events on the ground; gave early warning of attacks; and guided smart weapons, using GPS. They were a key part of Coalition '**C4ISR**' – command, control, communications, computers, intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance. Whereas the Duke of Wellington controlled his troops from high ground overlooking the Battle of Waterloo, modern commanders control battles from space!

Extend your knowledge

Use an internet search engine to search for 'BBC Academy video – journalists embedded in Iraq 2003'. Watch the 15-minute video in the BBC Academy article that you find.

Name two BBC reporters who were embedded with Coalition troops.

- What are the benefits of having embedded journalists?
- What are the worries about embedded journalism?

Reasons for the outcome of the war

Stage 1: The attack (2003)

The Coalition attack on Iraq in 2003 is an example of asymmetric warfare – a war in which one side is much more powerful than the other. What made the Coalition so much more powerful?

1. **The Coalition had better weapons.**
   The Coalition weapons have been described on page 123. Even though Iraq had more troops, its weapons were very weak against superior Coalition weapons in both their ground and air attacks.
   - The most common Iraqi tank in 2003 was the T-55, which came into service in 1958. Its 100 mm guns were too weak to knock out the British Challenger, and its 20 cm skin was too thin to protect it from the Challenger's armour-piercing shells.
   - Iraqi fighter planes stayed on the ground, to avoid destruction by Coalition fighters. Although the Iraqis fired 1,660 anti-aircraft missiles, they failed to hit a single Coalition aircraft. The only effective Iraqi anti-aircraft weapons were artillery and missiles used against low-flying helicopters.
2. **The Coalition had more money to spend.**
   The high-tech weapons used by the Coalition were expensive. British Storm Shadow missiles cost £800,000 each; Challenger tanks cost £4 million each. But the Coalition was prepared to pay for victory.
   - The USA spent about $50 billion on the Iraq War in 2003.
   - The UK spent about £1 billion for each year of the Iraq War.

Key factors affecting the outcome

From the information above, it is clear that the key factors in the successful Coalition attack on Iraq were:

- **improved technology**
- **government spending.**

Stage 2: Guerrilla warfare (2004–11)

Although the Coalition attack defeated Iraq within about 20 days, it was a further eight years before Coalition troops could leave the new Iraqi government in control of the country. Why was this?

- British troops defeated the regular Iraqi army and captured the city of Basra on 6 April 2003.
- But, over the years that followed, local unofficial militia groups, who resented the Coalition, destroyed water supplies and attacked British troops with sniper fire and mortar attacks.
- In 2007, British troops had to withdraw from the town. Eventually, 30,000 troops of the new Iraqi army had to come in to reclaim the town by house-to-house searches for weapons.

The weapons and tactics British troops used to *capture* the town were no use in *controlling* it.

Activities ?

1. Make a list of the ways you can use examples from the Iraq War of 2003 to illustrate typical features of modern warfare.
2. Having superior weapons was one reason for the Coalition victory in Iraq in 2003. To learn key facts about these, use the details on pages 122–124, about Coalition and Iraqi weapons, to make a set of Top Fact cards, with key details of each weapon. Use the cards to test each other.
3. Iraq had many more troops, but the Coalition defeated Iraq in 21 days. Write a paragraph to explain why.

Summary

- The Iraq War of 2003 illustrates typical features of warfare at that time.
- The Iraq War illustrates the role of high-tech weapons in modern warfare.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Can you describe the use of high-tech weapons in the Iraq War?

Challenge

C1 Can you evaluate the reasons for the outcome of the Iraq War?

If you are not sure, go back to the text in this section to find the details you need.

Recap c1900–present: Warfare and British society

Draw a table showing continuity and change in warfare c1900–present, based on the one below. Draw larger coloured boxes and use these to note down evidence for each of the examples of: Continuity, Change, Trend / Turning Point, Factors and Consequences in the table. The evidence will be detailed information like statistics, a key battle, a new law, etc.

Change and continuity
Continuity
Small peacetime standing army
Change
Fall in size of peacetime army
Composition of the army
More specialist army units
Haldane's Reforms 1908
New weapons, military transport and surveillance 1900–1945
New, high-tech weapons, military transport and surveillance since 1945
Total warfare 1914–18 and 1939–45
Women in armed forces
Civilians involvement in war
Impact upon civilians of warfare
Propaganda and censorship
Reporting of wars
Attitudes of civilians on war
Recruitment and training

Patterns of change
Trend or turning point
Turning Point Development of modern technology for weapons and surveillance
Trend Increase in specialist units in the army
Trend Increase in power of defence 1900–1916
Trend Increase in power of attack 1916 onwards
Trend Increasing civilian involvement in warfare
Trend Increase in public concern about war casualties

Factors affecting warfare
Factor affecting change
Government action
Science – development of chemical weapons
High-technology – electronics, lasers and computers
Communication – military use of radio, computers and satellite communication
Communication – press, film, radio, television and social media
Social attitudes towards warfare
Technology – development of motorised vehicles and aircraft
Consequence for civilians
Increased public involvement in armed forces and on the Home Front
Increase in impact of warfare upon civilians – e.g. bombing
Growth of civilian influence over warfare

Exam-style question, Section B

Explain why there has been so much change since 1900 in the way that warfare is reported in the media.

You may use the following in your answer:

- attitudes towards censorship
- embedded journalists in the Iraq War (2003).

You **must** also use information of your own. **12 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests analysis of causation.

1. Include your **own information**.
2. The answer must include a series of reasons for the change. You may want to write a paragraph about each reason for change.
3. The answer should give **detailed information** to support each reason.

Change and continuity (4a)

Significance

Look at Source C (page 120) and Interpretation 1 (page 102).

1. What impression does the German war reporter give about tanks in 1916?
2. How significant did he think the development of tanks was?
3. Compare this to the modern website quoted in Interpretation 1. What significance does this give to the development of tanks?
4. Why do you think these views might differ so greatly?

Writing historically: a well-structured response

Every response you write needs to be clearly written and clearly structured. To help you achieve this, you need to signal clearly the sequence and structure of your ideas.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you will understand how to:

- use adverbials to sequence events and developments chronologically
- use adverbials to link your ideas and signal the sequence and structure of your argument.

Definitions

Adverbial: a word or phrase that can modify a verb, adjective or another adverb, e.g. 'quickly', 'incredibly', 'such'; or can be used to link ideas, e.g. 'similarly', 'consequently', 'therefore', etc.

Chronological: sequenced in order of time; the order in which a series of events took place.

How can I signal the structure and sequence of chronological events?

When you explain or describe a process, such as the development of nuclear weapons, you can use **adverbials** to signal a series of events over time (**chronological** order).

Look at this sequence of events describing the development of nuclear weapons:

> The Germans surrendered to the Allies in May 1945.
>
> The Americans dropped the first atomic bomb on Hiroshima in August.
>
> The Soviet Union exploded its first atomic bomb in 1949.
>
> Driven by Cold War rivalry, there were nine nuclear powers by 2015.
>
> Britain had about 200 nuclear warheads in 2015.

1. Write a paragraph about the development of nuclear weapons, using some of the adverbials below to signal clearly and link the order of these events (note: adverbials don't always need to go at the start of the sentence, e.g. 'The Soviet Union finally exploded its first atomic bomb in 1949').

> Firstly... Secondly... Then... Soon... Next... Meanwhile... Eventually... Finally...

2. You could use a wider range of adverbials to signal, much more clearly and precisely, the timescale over which nuclear weapons developed. Look at the examples below. Use them to help you rewrite your paragraph, making it as clear and precise as possible.

> Initially... Previously... Before... During... After several months... Within four years...
>
> 66 years later... Also in that year... By 2015... From 1945 to 1949...

3. Compare your answers to Questions 1 and 2. Which version do you prefer? Write a sentence or two explaining your decision.

How can I signal the structure and sequence of my argument?

You can use adverbials to link your ideas and guide the reader through your argument. For example:

> *Similarly... For example... Such as... However... Therefore... Consequently...*
> *Moreover... Nonetheless... Furthermore... On the other hand... In addition... Above all...*
> *Significantly... In conclusion...*

4. Now look at the two extracts below from a response to the following exam-style question. How many adverbials has the writer used to link their ideas and structure their argument? Make a note of them all.

> 'The impact of new weapons and military equipment since 1815 has been to strengthen attacking forces'. How far do you agree? **(20 marks)**

> *In the early 19th century, defending forces had the advantage. Consequently, wars were slow and often settled by numbers. However, improvements in science, technology and industry in the second half of the 19th century and early 20th century led to a further revolution in warfare and new developments such as railways, aircraft and tanks opened warfare to the attacker once more.*
>
> *These improvements, therefore, strengthened attacking forces. There are, on the other hand, other perspectives and developments to consider.*

5. Adverbials can indicate different relationships between the ideas they link. Look at the adverbials at the top of this page. Add them to the table below to show which of them indicate:

Causation and consequence	
Addition	
Contrast	
Exemplification	
Emphasis	

Did you notice?

Adverbials can be positioned at a number of different points in a sentence.

6. At which point in the sentences, in the response above, are most of the adverbials positioned?

7. Choose one sentence from the response above in which an adverbial is used. Experiment with repositioning the adverbial at different points in the sentence. What impact does it have on the clarity of the sentence?

Improving an answer

Now look at the final paragraph, below, from a response to the exam-style question above.

> *Both of these are interlinked and important. The scientific and technological breakthroughs of the 19th and 20th centuries (tanks, railways, aircraft) favoured the attacker. Other developments were made that countered this (machine guns, aerial defence). Attacking forces were strengthened partly in response to improved defensive technology.*

8. Rewrite this conclusion using a range of adverbials to signal clearly the development of the argument.

Preparing for your GCSE Paper 1 exam

Paper 1 overview

Your Paper 1 is in two sections that examine the Historic Environment and the Thematic Study. Together they count for 30% of your History assessment. The questions on the Thematic Study: Warfare through time are in Section B and are worth 20% of your History assessment. Allow two-thirds of the examination time for Section B. There are an extra four marks for the assessment of Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar in the last question.

History Paper 1	**Historic Environment and Thematic Depth Study**			**Time 1 hour 15 mins**
Section A	Historic Environment	Answer 3 questions	16 marks	25 mins
Section B	Thematic Study	Answer 3 questions	32 marks + 4 SPaG marks	50 mins

Warfare and British society, c1250–present

You will answer Questions 3 and 4, and then **either** Question 5 or Question 6.

Q3 Explain one way… (4 marks)

You are given about half a page of lines to write about a similarity or a difference. Allow five minutes to write your answer.

This question is only worth four marks and you should keep the answer brief. Only one comparison is needed. You should compare by referring to both periods given in the question – for example, *'xxx was similar because in the Middle Ages… and also in the 16th century…'*

Q4 Explain why… (12 marks)

This question asks you to explain the reasons why something happened. Allow about 15 minutes to write your answer.

You are given two information points as prompts to help you. You do not have to use the prompts and you will not lose marks by leaving them out. Higher marks are gained by adding in a point extra to the prompts.

You will be given at least two pages of lines in the answer booklet for your answer. This does not mean you should try to fill all the space. Aim to write an answer giving at least three explained reasons.

EITHER 5 OR 6 How far do you agree? (16 marks + 4 for SPaG)

This question, including SPaG, is worth 20 marks – more than half your marks for the whole of the Thematic Study. Make sure you have kept 30 minutes of the exam time to answer it and to check your spelling, punctuation and grammar.

You have a choice: 5 or 6. Before you decide, be clear what each statement in the questions is about and what topic information you will need to answer it. You will have prompts to help, as for Question 4.

The statement can be about the concepts of: cause, significance, consequence, change, continuity, similarity, difference. It is a good idea during revision to practise identifying the concept focus of statements. For example, the statement 'Mounted knights declined because of the longbow', is a statement about cause.

You must make a judgement on **how far you agree** and you should think about **both** sides of the argument. Plan your answer before you begin to write, putting your answer points in two columns: For and Against. You should consider at least three points. Think about it as if you were putting weight on each side to decide what your judgement is going to be for the conclusion. That way your whole answer hangs together – it is coherent.

Be clear about your reasons (your criteria) for your judgement – for example, why one cause is more important than another. Did it perhaps set others in motion? You must **explain** your answer.

In this question, four extra marks will be gained for good Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar. Use sentences, paragraphs, capital letters, commas and full stops, etc. Try also to use specialist terms specific to your Thematic Study – for example, feudal duty, scutage, schiltrons, etc.

On the one hand	On the other hand
• Point 1	• Point 2 • Point 3

▼

Conclusion

Paper 1, Questions 3&4

Question 3. Explain **one** way in which the composition of the army was different in the early 17th and early 19th centuries. **(4 marks)**

Average answer

In 1600 they had pikemen and musketeers in the infantry but in 1800 they didn't.

Verdict

This is an average answer because the difference is not explained.

Question 4. Explain why English armies stopped using the longbow between the Battle of Bosworth (1485) and 1600.

You may use the following in your answer:

- developments in armour
- changes in society.

You **must** also use information of your own. **(12 marks)**

Average answer

English armies stopped using the longbow and started using the musket after new armour was invented at the end of the sixteenth century that used high carbon steel. This was much stronger than the old armour, and it was almost arrow proof.

Information is accurate but too descriptive. There is some development, but not directly linked to the question.

Changes in society meant there were not so many men who could use a longbow because they didn't have time to practise.

This is a valid reason, but needs to be supported with specific information.

The guns got better as well. The new matchlock musket was much quicker to reload than the old ones and it could fire every two minutes. It was so heavy that it still needed a rest to support the end though.

Relevant extra information in addition to the stimulus points. But, it isn't used to answer the question.

Verdict

This is an average answer because:

- information is accurate, showing some knowledge and understanding of the period and adds a point beyond the stimulus material (so it is not a weak answer)
- it does not analyse causes explicitly enough to be a strong answer – it should be much more specific about answering the **why** in the question
- there is some development of factual material, but the line of reasoning is not clear.

Use the feedback to rewrite these answers, making as many improvements as you can.

Paper 1, Questions 3&4

Question 3. Explain **one** way in which the composition of the army was different in the early 17th and early 19th centuries. **(4 marks)**

Strong answer

In 1600, the army infantry units were a combination of pikemen and musketeers. In 1800, the infantry were no longer divided into musketeers and pikemen – the invention of the bayonet meant that they just had soldiers with muskets or rifles and bayonets.

Verdict

This is a strong answer because it has valid information about the composition of the army in both periods, and it explains the difference using precise knowledge.

Question 4. Explain why English armies stopped using the longbow between the Battle of Bosworth (1485) and 1600. **(12 marks)**

Strong answer

There were three main reasons for stopping the use of the longbow. First, armour got better. The new carbon steel armour developed at the start of the 16th century was so strong it could protect its wearers from arrows, so bowmen could not be effective in stopping well armed men. Second, the matchlock musket was improved. By the middle of the 16th century, it was firing a bullet of two ounces, which could smash through the new armour, so musketeers could do something archers could not do. Third, changes in society meant that there weren't so many men who could be archers. Farms switched to a lot more sheep, and shepherds weren't as strong as labourers, and prices went up which meant men had to work more and didn't have the time to train. So it was much harder to find good archers, and anyone could just pull a trigger to fire a gun. These things didn't just happen one day, they took about 100 years. It got harder to find the right archers, and guns were getting better, so gradually the longbow died out.

A clear introduction which tells the examiner there will be three reasons, and they are all answers to the question.

Starts with good information and then goes on (from 'so…') to explain why that information is part of the answer to the question.

Introduces extra relevant information beyond the stimulus points, and explains why that information is part of the answer to the question.

Precise information is selected to show the significance of changes in society and the answer ends by combining factors in the explanation.

Verdict

This is a strong answer because:

- there is good accurate information, which is well chosen to support the argument
- the answer is analytical and each section is brought back to the question
- the line of reasoning is coherent and sustained.

Paper 1, Questions 5/6

Question 5/6. 'In the years 1250–1945, forcing soldiers to serve continued to be the main method of recruitment in time of war'. How far do you agree? Explain your answer.
You may use the following in your answer:

- the use of pressing and conscription
- the recruitment of the New Model Army.

You **must** also use information of your own.
(16 marks + 4 for SPaG)

Exam tip

Consider points for and against the statement and make a judgement. Be clear about your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing. SPaG is also assessed. Take care with spelling, punctuation and the use of sentences, paragraphs and historical terms.

Average answer

In 1250 the armies were feudal and the soldiers had to serve because it was how they got their land. Then the Statute of Westminster changed things because the army was now chosen from the men who turned up to be picked. When we get to the English Civil War, the New Model Army was a mixture of volunteers and pressed soldiers. At the start, the cavalry were volunteers but the infantry were mainly pressed. Later, the infantry were volunteers too. But, after the New Model Army, they went back to pressing and to taking criminals from prison.
In the First World War and the Second World War there was conscription, which meant you were forced to join the army or the navy, although a very few people were allowed to be conscientious objectors.
So, this statement is right, usually when there was a war the soldiers were forced to serve.

8th

This brings in points beyond the stimulus. However, this information hasn't been linked to the question at all.

The information to support the answer is good here. Again, however, the information is not used as part of a line of argument.

Again the information is sound, not just mentioning conscription but also conscientious objectors; but the information is not linked to any argument.

A judgement is given, but the information used in the answer needs to be explained as part of the judgement. Also, the answer ignores completely the period 1700 to 1900 and, since the question is from 1250 to 1945, that is a mistake.

Verdict

This is an average answer because:

- it shows some knowledge and understanding of the period, and adds points beyond the stimulus points (so it is not a weak answer)
- it does not analyse factors, or explain criteria for judgement, clearly enough to be a strong answer
- spelling is accurate, but use of specialist terms is not wide-ranging and punctuation and grammar is not always precise.

Use the feedback to rewrite this answer, making as many improvements as you can.

Paper 1, Questions 5/6

Question 5/6. 'The main method of recruiting soldiers from 1250 to 1945, in time of war, was to force them to serve'. **(16 marks + 4 for SPaG)**

Strong answer

The key point in the question is the word 'main'. The statement will be true if most people were forced to be soldiers when there was a war on.

[Paragraph on recruitment to medieval armies and role of feudal obligation: accepted duty, volunteers in Hundred Years' War.]

The New Model Army was the army that won the English Civil War, although it wasn't set up until 1645 after three years of war. The soldiers came from other armies, but there weren't enough. The cavalry were all volunteers, but they had to press most of the infantry (and lots of them deserted). After the New Model Army started winning, all the soldiers were volunteers. So it is a bit on both sides. There were more infantry than cavalry, but because of the deserters it's hard to say most were forced to serve, and later they were all volunteers so none of them were forced.

Between 1700 and 1900, the armies were mainly volunteers. The officers had to buy their commissions, so they were all volunteers. The other ranks were a mixture of men who joined because they wanted to, men who recruiting sergeants got drunk and tricked into joining, and men from prisons who were let out if they agreed to join the army. So, you could argue they were almost all volunteers, but the drunks and the prisoners didn't have much choice. This all changed with Cardwell's reforms in the 1870s. Conditions were improved, the amount of time soldiers spent overseas was reduced by splitting regiments into linked battalions, and it got easier to recruit volunteers, although not all of them were fit and healthy.

In the First World War, there were over a million volunteers in 1914. But, as people realised how bad the war was, in 1916 there was conscription, which lasted for the rest of the war. So this is also mixed, but there were three years with conscription and two years of volunteers, so most were forced to serve.

[Paragraph on recruitment in the Second World War and role of conscription.]

I think the statement is just about true. At the beginning of the medieval period, it was more an accepted obligation than being forced. There were more people forced in the English Civil War and the First and Second World Wars. The period from 1700–1900 is a mixture, but a lot of people were either forced to, or tricked into, joining the army. There were a lot of volunteers in the Hundred Years' War and the First World War (but they were outnumbered by the conscripts). So, because the question says 'main', it is right.

This is a good start because it concentrates on the question and explains what the criteria will be for making the judgement.

This is well written, with appropriate technical words (cavalry, infantry, deserters). The second half is all about making a judgement.

This shows good recall of the main methods of recruiting, and in the nature and effect of Cardwell's reforms, but it is less clear in using criteria to make a judgement.

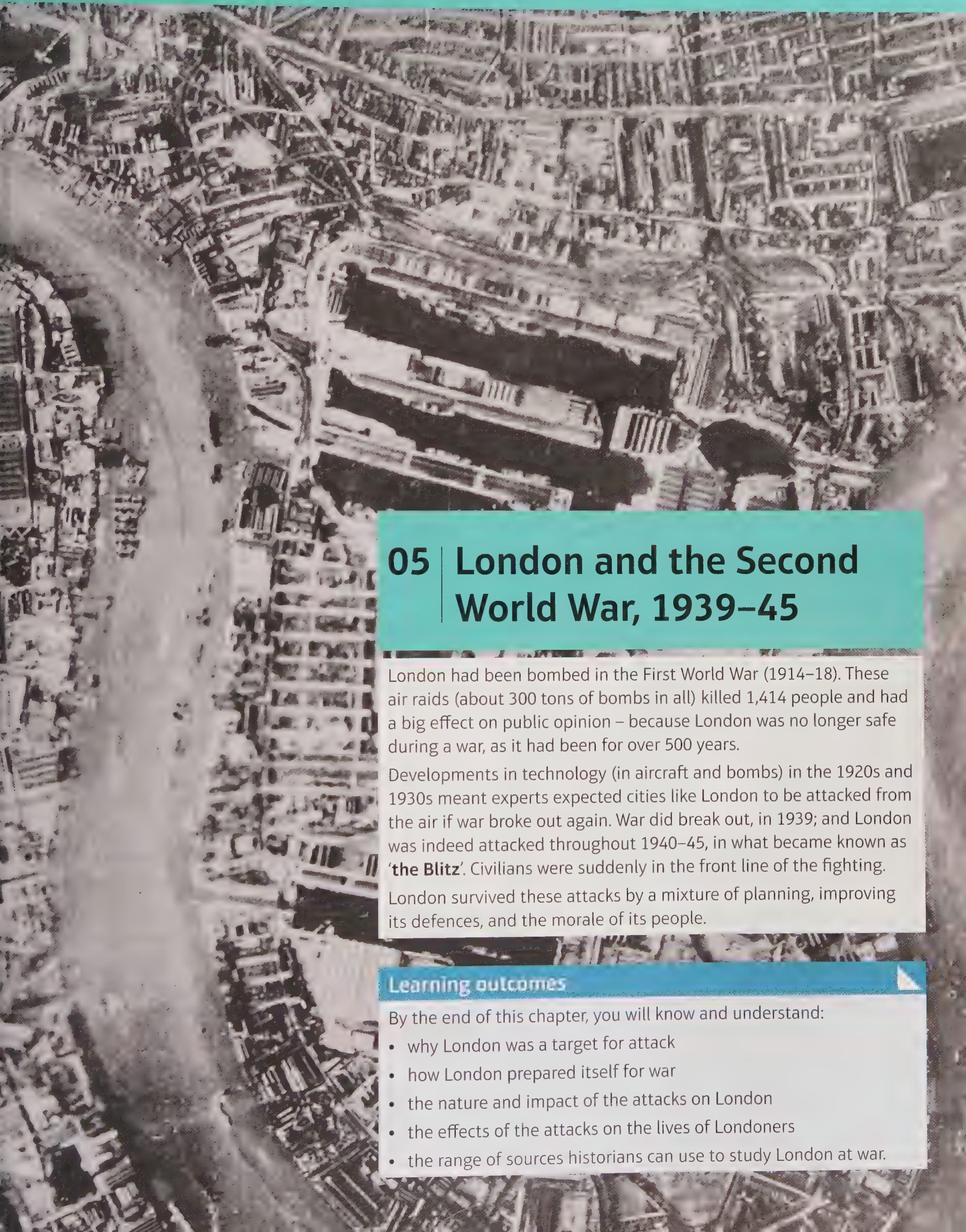
Here, the criterion from the introduction is used to clearly make the judgement. Because conscription lasted longer than volunteering, the example supports the judgement in the question.

A strong conclusion with a judgement supported by criteria.

Verdict

This is a strong answer because:

- information is wide-ranging and precisely selected to support points directly addressing the question
- criteria for making the judgement are set up and used. The line of reasoning is coherent and sustained, and the judgement is appropriately justified
- SPaG demonstrates accuracy, effective control of meaning and a wide range of specialist terms.



05 London and the Second World War, 1939–45

London had been bombed in the First World War (1914–18). These air raids (about 300 tons of bombs in all) killed 1,414 people and had a big effect on public opinion – because London was no longer safe during a war, as it had been for over 500 years.

Developments in technology (in aircraft and bombs) in the 1920s and 1930s meant experts expected cities like London to be attacked from the air if war broke out again. War did break out, in 1939; and London was indeed attacked throughout 1940–45, in what became known as '**the Blitz**'. Civilians were suddenly in the front line of the fighting.

London survived these attacks by a mixture of planning, improving its defences, and the morale of its people.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this chapter, you will know and understand:

- why London was a target for attack
- how London prepared itself for war
- the nature and impact of the attacks on London
- the effects of the attacks on the lives of Londoners
- the range of sources historians can use to study London at war.

Sources and the examination

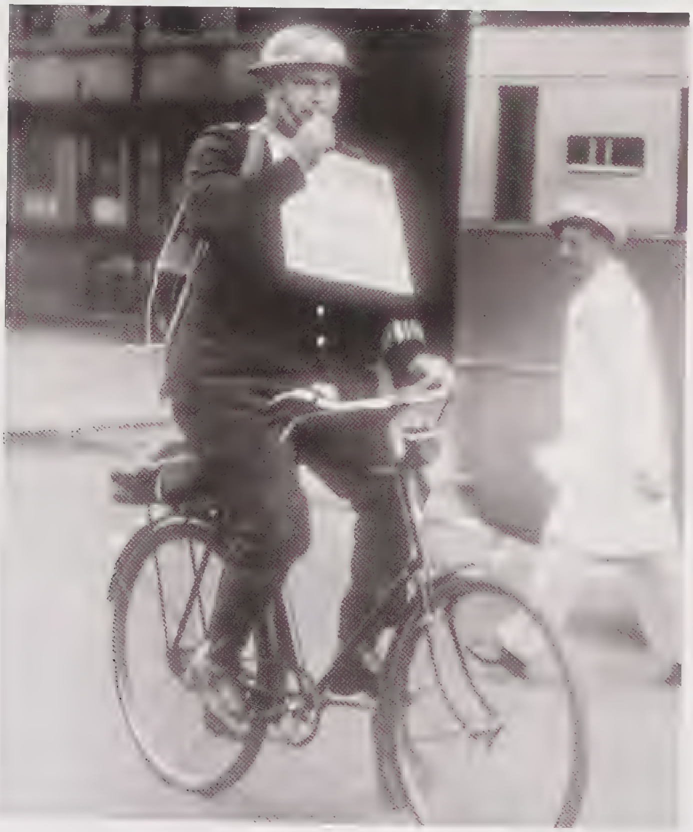
Source A

The memories of Odette Lesley, a young woman living with her family in London in 1939, talking about the first air raid, when interviewed for a television programme in 1985.

I remember when the first siren went, how we struggled with our gas masks, because they were the most awkward things possible to put on. It was a very terrifying time. We had this awful fear of the air attack on London because, obviously, it was the age of the plane. I used to imagine swarms of planes, always black, with evil-looking pilots in them coming over, raining down death from the sky, and I could see buildings all round me collapsing, I could hear screams, terrible noise, terrible panic. Everything was destruction, it was terrible to imagine, and now it became very real in my mind. We thought we were going to get gas raining down. We thought, this is it, we are just going to die.

Source B

A photograph showing a policeman giving the air raid warning on 3 September 1939, within minutes of war being declared.



In the examination you will be given **two** sources; and you are asked to do **two** things with these sources:

1. Comment on the **usefulness of both** sources for an enquiry.
2. Write about **a detail in one source** that you think it would be useful to **follow up**. Then, write about: the new question this detail prompts you to ask; the type of source you would need to answer your new question; and why you think that source might help you to answer your new question.

Because most of the marks in this section of the examination are for your work with sources, there are more sources in this chapter than in the rest of the book.

At **11.15am, on 3 September 1939**, the prime minister, **Neville Chamberlain**, made a radio broadcast to the nation. He said that, from 11am, the country was at war with Germany. Almost as soon as Chamberlain stopped speaking there was an air raid warning across London. Sources A and B are about this raid and will be an example to help you understand how the examination works.

Usefulness (utility) of a source

No source is useful (or useless) until you have an enquiry. Our enquiry is: How useful are Sources A and B for an enquiry into how ready London, and Londoners, were for air raids when war broke out?

To answer this question, you will need to explain the criteria* for your judgement. This might be based on your analysis of:

- the content of the source – what it tells you
- the nature, origin and purpose of the source
- the context of the source – how fitting it into what you already know about London in the Blitz helps you understand the source better – you might comment on its accuracy, selectiveness, or typicality.

Key term

Criteria* (singular: criterion)

The measure by which you judge something. It is vital in History that you know your criteria before judging a source.

How does this work in practice?

- Source A tells us that a system of air raid sirens was set up, and that people already had their gas masks. More interestingly, it tells us what people were thinking when they didn't know what was going to happen. This last point is an example of a criterion for judging the usefulness of the source – does it tell us something **unusual** and **relevant**?
- Source A is a person remembering events about 45 years after they happened. Since Odette Lesley states that she thought things were going to be much worse than they actually were, she probably isn't trying to make herself out to be cleverer than she was; can be used as part of a criterion for judging the usefulness of a source – is it **likely to be true**? This shows you have thought about the actual source, rather than just saying it is 45 years later so she may have misremembered – you could say that about any source that relies on memory.
- When you have studied this topic a bit more, you could show how this source fits into your knowledge by pointing out that gas masks were given out when Britain and Germany nearly went to war in September 1938. Or you could link Lesley's fears to what people thought would happen to London based on bombing in the First World War and the Spanish Civil War, and based on the increasing power of both aircraft and bombs between the wars.

The **criteria are what you build your answer with**. The best answers will use criteria drawn from all three possible areas:

- **content**
- **provenance*** (nature, origin and purpose)
- **context** (how it fits into what you already know).

Key term

Provenance*

In History, where a source comes from – who made it, when and why.

Following-up on a source

Where possible, historians try to use as many different types of source as they can. There is a good reason for this: each different type of source has different strengths and weaknesses.

The second question about sources asks you to pick a detail from one of the sources, ask a question about it, then explain how you would follow up that question with a different **type** of source. Figure 5.1 shows the range of different types of source a historian can use.

Activities

1. In small groups, study Source B and make a list of criteria you could use to judge its usefulness.
2. Using the categories from Figure 5.1, make a list of sources that could be used to study your own life.
   - **a** Give at least one example source in each category.
   - **b** Explain why each source would be useful.
3. Your enquiry is 'Life in London during the Blitz'.
   - **a** Copy Figure 5.1, leaving lots of space in the boxes on the lowest row.
   - **b** Look ahead at the sources in the rest of this chapter and list, in the boxes on your diagram, one example of each type of source that could be used for your enquiry into life in London during the Blitz.

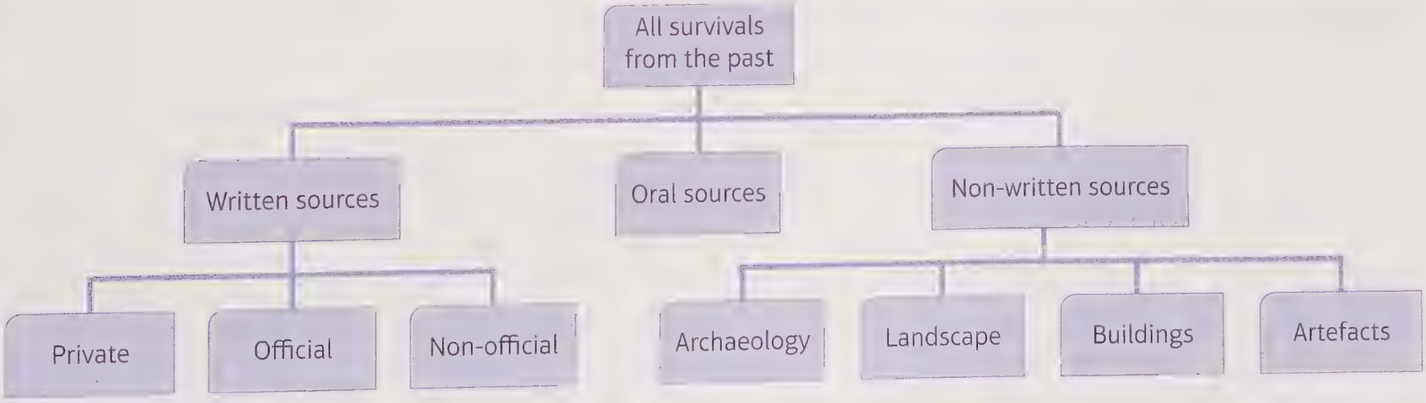


Figure 5.1 Types of historical sources.

Provenance

Historians think very carefully about their sources. They test them to check whether they are really appropriate for the way they want to use them. The tests are:

What is its purpose?

When, **where**, and **why** was the source created – and **who** by? When we read something about living in the Blitz by someone who was there, it helps to know if they wrote this at the time or 50 years later. Just because it was written at the time doesn't mean it is true. A soldier stationed in London might have written to his girlfriend back home a couple of days after the events he describes. When he describes a bombing raid, he might underplay the extent of the bombing. In this case, the purpose of the source might be to reassure his girlfriend, rather than to tell the whole truth about the air raid.

What is the standpoint of the author or artist?

This can grow out of thinking about provenance. Does the person have a particular point of view? If you are reading a criticism of air raid shelters, it might be useful to know whether it was written by an opponent or a supporter of the government. **Propaganda** is deliberately created to change people's views. It might be exaggerated, it might leave things out, or it might just not be true. This doesn't mean historians don't use propaganda – it provides much useful evidence – but the use might be revealing what the government **wanted** people to believe, rather than what **really** happened.

Is it part of the action or reflecting on the action?

What is the difference between a live radio commentary on a football match, and the account of that same game written years later in a player's autobiography? Both have their strengths, but they are very different.

Turning a source into evidence

A source is only useful, and it can only be turned into evidence, when you have a question or enquiry. For example, Source B isn't either useful or not useful in itself. But if we have an enquiry, say either: (a) the defence of London against bombing, or (b) conditions in air raid shelters, then we can think about whether it is useful or not. In the case of enquiry (a) it is useful, and in the case of enquiry (b) it is not.

THINKING HISTORICALLY Evidence (2a)

Information and evidence

Information only becomes evidence when we use it **to work out** something about an issue in the past. Information needs to be questioned before we can use it as **evidence** to draw conclusions. Without a question, information doesn't tell us very much.

Study the following questions about the Second World War:

1 Did the government prepare for the possibility of air raids?	**2** Why did the Germans decide to bomb cities?	**3** What was the situation in January 1939?
4 What was the role of women in preparing for war?	**5** How did people react when the attacks started?	**6** What was the experience of war for men in the army?

Study Sources A, B and C.

1 Which of the six questions would the sources **not** help us answer?

2 Which question is Source A most useful in providing evidence for?

3 Look at Source B. Draw up a table with three columns headed 'Question', 'Inference' and 'Evidence'.

  a Write out the first question from the table above in the first column. Then use Source B to fill in the other two columns with inferences you can make that answer the question, and evidence from the source that backs up each inference.

  b Write out the fourth question in a new row, and add inferences and evidence for this question from Source B.

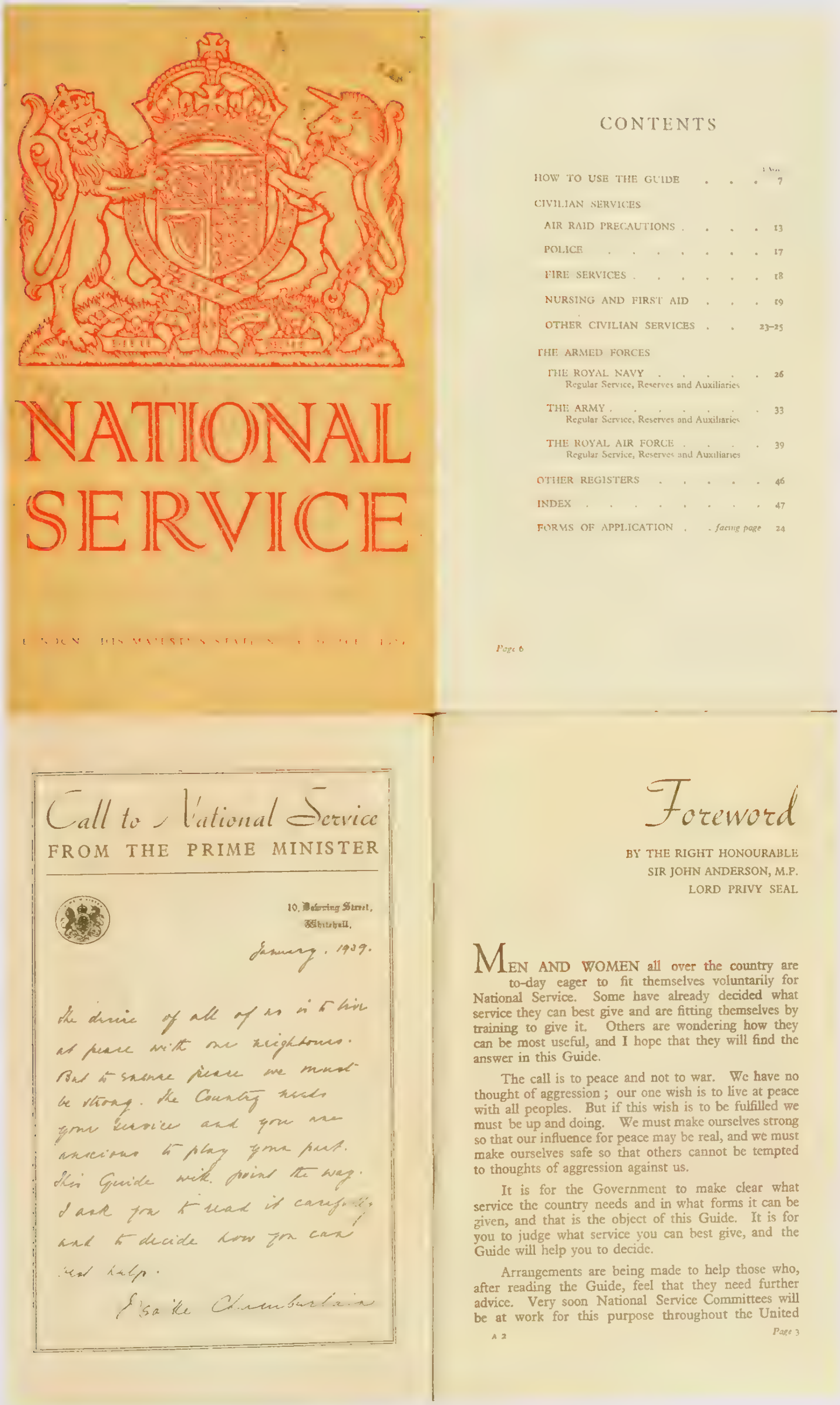
  c Look at the inferences you have made from Source B. Are they the same for the two questions?

  d Write a new question that Source B could help you to answer.

4 In your own words, explain how the question you ask affects what evidence you use in a source.

Source C

The cover, the contents list, and the introduction from a government leaflet published in January 1939.



NATIONAL SERVICE

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Call to National Service

FROM THE PRIME MINISTER

10, Downing Street,
Whitehall,

January, 1939.

The desire of all of us is to live at peace with our neighbours. But to ensure peace we must be strong. The Country needs your service and you are anxious to play your part. This Guide will point the way. I ask you to read it carefully and to decide how you can best help.

Neville Chamberlain

Foreword

BY THE RIGHT HONOURABLE
SIR JOHN ANDERSON, M.P.
LORD PRIVY SEAL

MEN AND WOMEN all over the country are to-day eager to fit themselves voluntarily for National Service. Some have already decided what service they can best give and are fitting themselves by training to give it. Others are wondering how they can be most useful, and I hope that they will find the answer in this Guide.

The call is to peace and not to war. We have no thought of aggression; our one wish is to live at peace with all peoples. But if this wish is to be fulfilled we must be up and doing. We must make ourselves strong so that our influence for peace may be real, and we must make ourselves safe so that others cannot be tempted to thoughts of aggression against us.

It is for the Government to make clear what service the country needs and in what forms it can be given, and that is the object of this Guide. It is for you to judge what service you can best give, and the Guide will help you to decide.

Arrangements are being made to help those who, after reading the Guide, feel that they need further advice. Very soon National Service Committees will be at work for this purpose throughout the United

A 2 Page 3

Activities ?

In groups, consider the enquiry: 'Was the government prepared for London being bombed before war broke out?'

England declared war on Germany on 3 September 1939. Study Source C.

1 Think about the provenance of Source C.
   a When was it produced?
   b Who produced it?
   c What was its purpose?
2 Does the information in Source C have any relevance to preparations for air raids?
3 Is Source C part of the action, or a later reflection of the action?
4 Is any part of Source C propaganda?
5 Using your answers to these questions, is Source C useful for the enquiry above? Give reasons for your answer.

The point of these questions is to develop criteria – reasons for the judgements you make.

6 Compare your answers with those of another group (or with the whole class). Which answers to questions 1 to 4 make the strongest criteria for your answer to question 5?

5.1 The context of London in the Second World War

Learning outcomes

- Understand why London was a target for attack.
- Understand how London prepared itself for war before 1939.

Why was London a target?

- London was the **capital city** of Great Britain. It was the **centre of government** and major destruction of government buildings, and the killing of lots of civil servants, would slow down the war effort; and there was also a chance that leading figures in the government might be killed or wounded.
- London was Britain's most important **port**. Britain depended on international shipping for food and for military supplies. Destroying the London docks would hinder the British war effort and, if it added to food shortages, might lower civilian morale.
- London was a major **industrial centre** for both heavy and light industry. Destroying factories, and the transport infrastructure that was vital to them, would damage the war effort.
- London was Britain's biggest city, with a **population** of 8.6 million people in 1939. One of the aims of bombing was to kill enemy civilians; and the best place to do this was where most of them were gathered together in the smallest area – that was London.
- **Geography** – London is in the south-east corner of Britain, not far from the coast, and opposite the northern coast of France, Belgium and the Netherlands. After the *Blitzkrieg* of the summer of 1940, Germany controlled these countries and they could base their bomber squadrons close to the Channel coast. **The Thames** and its estuary made a perfect route finder for the bombers as well. Even at night, the Thames helped; because on moonlit nights, the moonlight glinted on the river and was easy to see from the air. So the Thames acted as a signpost for bombers in the war.

Key terms

ARP wardens*

Appointed by the boroughs to organise and enforce air raid precautions. Full-time paid staff and part-time volunteers worked together in local teams.

Auxiliary*

The term used in the war for the volunteers who served in the emergency services.

The situation at the start of 1939

From the middle of the 1930s, war started to seem likely, although many hoped to avoid it. In the **Munich Crisis** of September 1938, war got so close that gas masks were issued to all Londoners. There was a last attempt at compromise with Hitler, instead of war. But from October 1938 onwards, preparations for war were taken very seriously; and preparing for war meant preparing for London to be bombed.

The technology of war was changing rapidly. In the First World War, bombs were dropped from airships or short-range planes. By the late 1930s, metal airframes, enclosed cockpits and more powerful engines meant bombers could go much further and faster – and therefore deliver their bombs far more effectively. Developments in the power of these bombs meant their effects would also be more devastating. As early as 1931, British military planners expected an enemy to drop 100 tons of high explosives on London on the first day of a war. By 1938, the prediction had gone up to 3,500 tons – well over ten times the amount dropped in the entire First World War!

The government shared the task of planning for war in London between the **London County Council (LCC)** and the **28 boroughs**. The **Air Raid Precautions Act** required local government (the LCC and the boroughs) to set up an **air raid precautions (ARP) system**, and gave them some money to do it.

- **The LCC** was responsible for the **Fire Service**, the **Ambulance Service**, the **Heavy Rescue Service** (for getting people out of bombed buildings) and the care of those made homeless by bombing.
- **Each borough** was responsible for **first aid**, and for setting up and running **local ARP wardens*** (one for every 500 people).
- In January 1939, there was a major push to recruit ARP wardens, auxiliary* fire and ambulance teams, and the WRVS* – together called **Civil Defence**.

From January to August 1939, different boroughs worked at different speeds. Some had finished issuing gas masks, had a well organised shelter programme, and had planned for the blackout* – others had not.

Key terms

WRVS*

Women's Royal Voluntary Services provided volunteers for various jobs – from running canteens for troops, to helping organise the evacuation. WRVS women also served as ARP wardens and in the emergency services.

Blackout*

From 1 September 1939, the government ordered a blackout every night, making towns and cities harder to target. No street lights, all outside windows covered, and only the faintest lights allowed on vehicles made town and cities very different.

Extend your knowledge

Guernica, bombed in 1937

In the Spanish Civil War, Guernica was bombed by German aeroplanes. It was the first European town to be bombed by a modern air force. Much of the town was destroyed, and it was believed at the time that about 1,400 of the 6,000 inhabitants were killed (though probably there were 'only' about 240 deaths). It had a big impact on public and government opinion. A British cinema newsreel showed pictures of the bombed town with the commentary: 'these were homes like yours'.

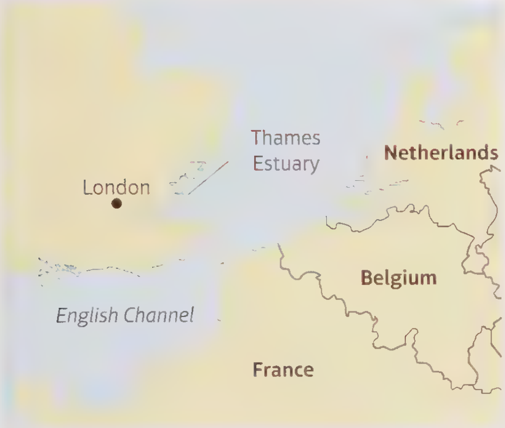


Figure 5.2 Map showing the proximity of London to the continent.

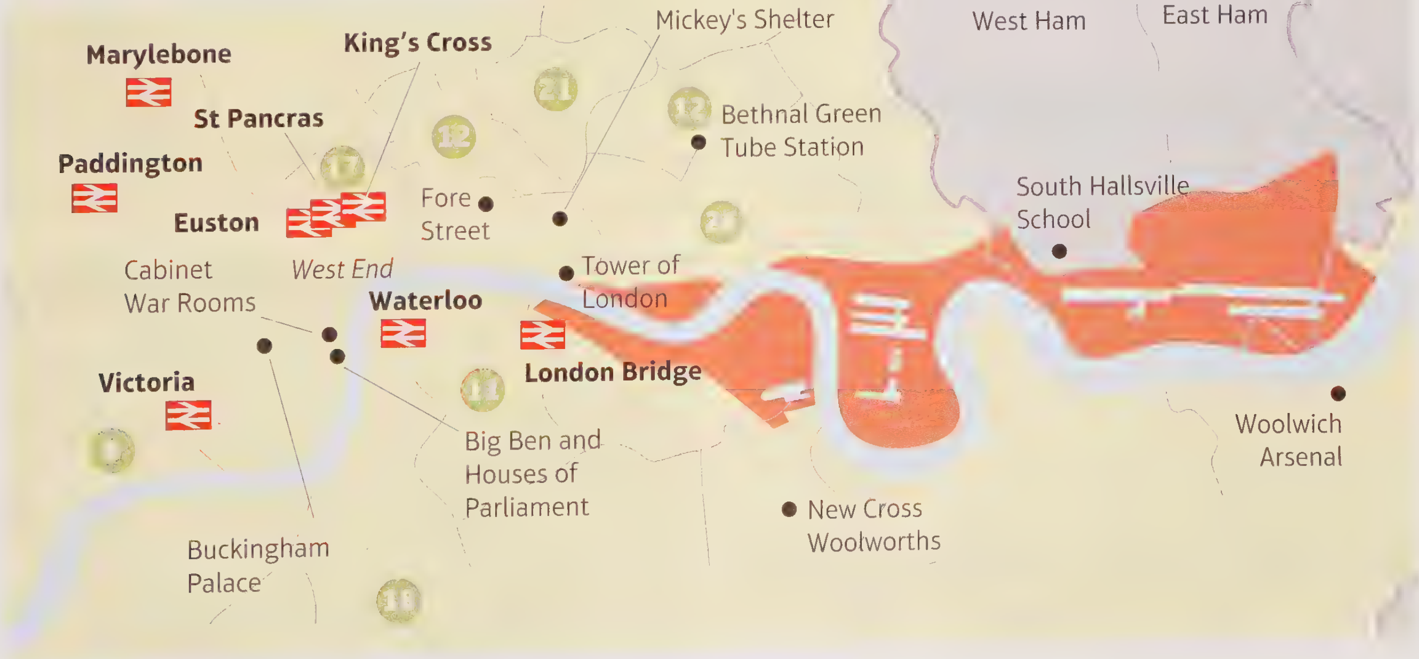


Figure 5.3 Map of central and east London, showing key targets and the percentage of destroyed/damaged houses in high-density population areas.

Evacuation

The plan was to take all children, and as many mothers as possible, out of London. This would reduce casualties, because they wouldn't be there when London was bombed; and the government felt it would also help those who were left behind to concentrate on their war work.

- Evacuation must happen before war broke out – bombing raids were expected straight away and transport links would be damaged.
- All children over five were already organised in large groups – schools. So they were to be evacuated by school – the teachers too.
- Local authorities in rural areas would organise the reception of children. The National Service brochure (see page 139) asked families to register if they were willing to take children, and they would be paid 52.5p a week for the first child they took in, and 42.5p for any others (when the average wage for men was under £3.50 a week.)
- The process was very complicated, requiring changes to railway timetables; and the WRVS supplied thousands of volunteers to help organise the actual evacuation days.

In August 1939, a crisis with Germany made war likely. So the government set **1 September** as the day for the evacuation to begin.

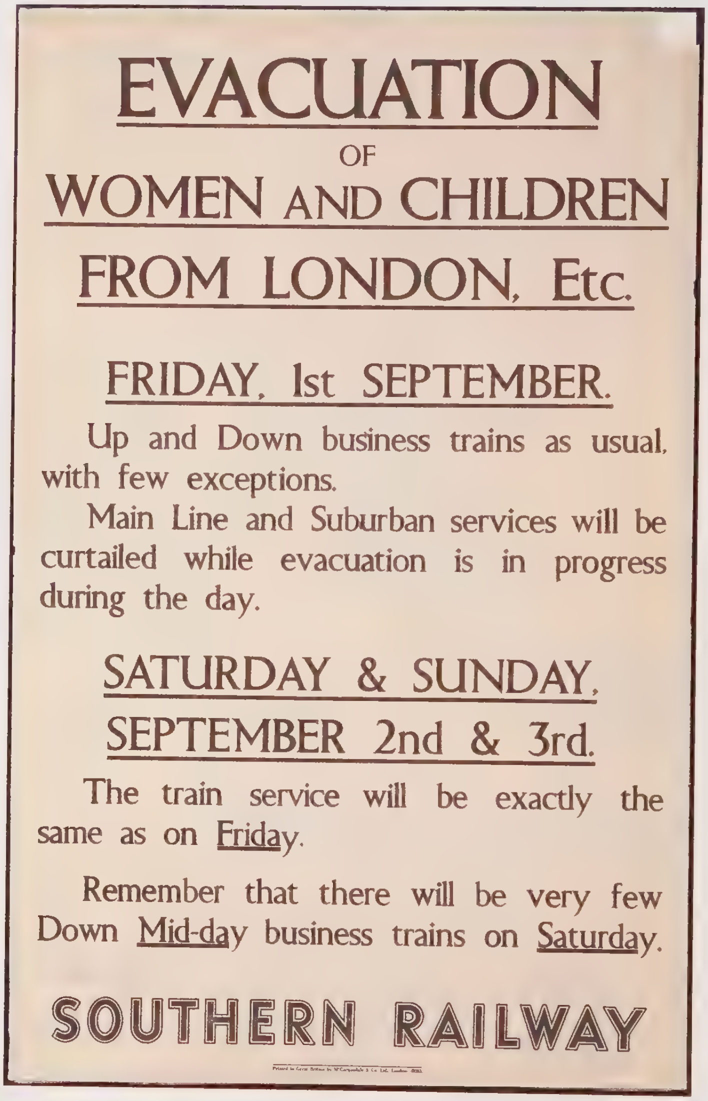
Source A

From the diary of Eileen Potter, an evacuation officer in West London, 2 September 1939. This diary was written for **Mass Observation** – an organisation set up in 1937 to preserve the experience of ordinary people by collecting diaries and surveys of their lives and opinions.

> On duty at East Acton station again. The evacuation of schoolchildren continues according to plan, except that again there are fewer than expected and we get them off more quickly… it has been decided to sandwich the third and fourth days' evacuation into tomorrow, and this means a good deal of alteration in the train schedules, instructions to voluntary helpers, etc. We all work late in the office.

Source B

A poster displayed in London railway stations in the last days of August 1939. 'Up' trains were to London, and 'down' trains from London.



EVACUATION

OF

WOMEN AND CHILDREN

FROM LONDON, Etc.

FRIDAY, 1st SEPTEMBER.

Up and Down business trains as usual, with few exceptions.

Main Line and Suburban services will be curtailed while evacuation is in progress during the day.

SATURDAY & SUNDAY, SEPTEMBER 2nd & 3rd.

The train service will be exactly the same as on Friday.

Remember that there will be very few Down Mid-day business trains on Saturday.

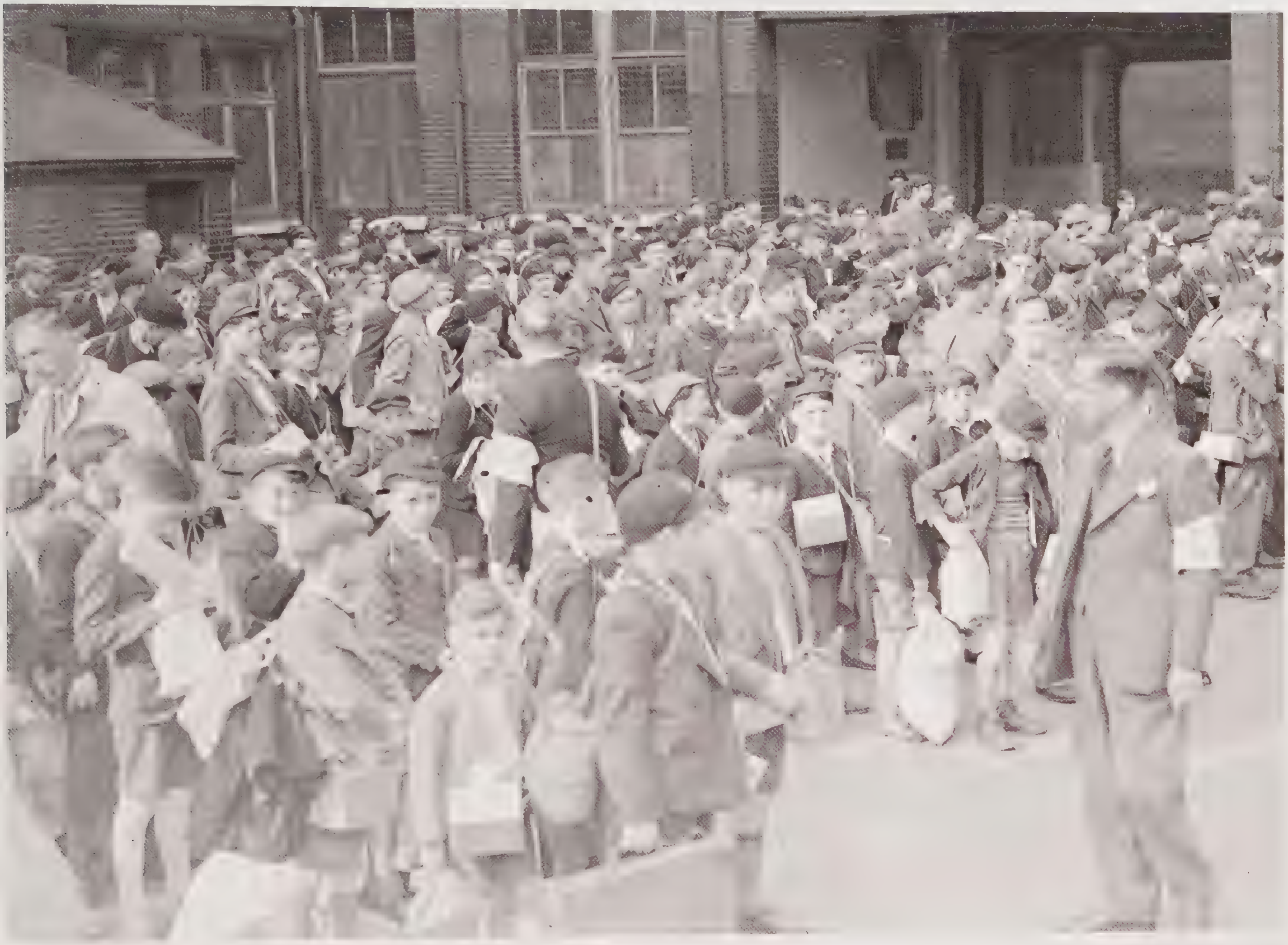
SOUTHERN RAILWAY

Activities

1. Describe the role played by the LCC and the boroughs in preparing London for war.
2. Describe the features of the preparations for war that involved volunteers.
3. For each of the Sources, A–C, make a statement about the evacuation, using the relevant source as evidence to support it.
4. Does each source add something new to your understanding of the evacuation?

Source C

A photograph showing London school children waiting outside their school to start their journey to the station for evacuation, 9 September 1939.



Gas masks

Gas attacks had been one of the horrors of the First World War, and Londoners expected gas attacks if war broke out. Issuing gas masks was the responsibility of the boroughs. The government made the order to issue them on Monday 26 September 1938, during the Munich crisis. Gas masks came in three sizes for adults, plus special ones for children and babies, and were supplied to the boroughs in their component parts. One London borough, St. Pancras, had only assembled 5,000 gas masks when the order arrived. So the borough took 200 men off their normal work to assemble the remaining masks. By Wednesday evening, 167,000 were ready, and 19 fitting stations were opened for people to come to be fitted with their mask.

When war broke out, people were expected to carry their gas masks with them at all times. If they lost their gas mask, they had to pay £5 to replace it.

There was a false alarm the day war was declared, but London wasn't bombed in the first months of the war. The government set up a (secret) system to report on the people's morale during the war. One of the things they did was to count those carrying their gas masks: this shows that data can be useful for revealing attitudes.

Date	Percentage carrying gas masks
4 September 1939	70%
9 November 1939	34%
31 March 1940	1%

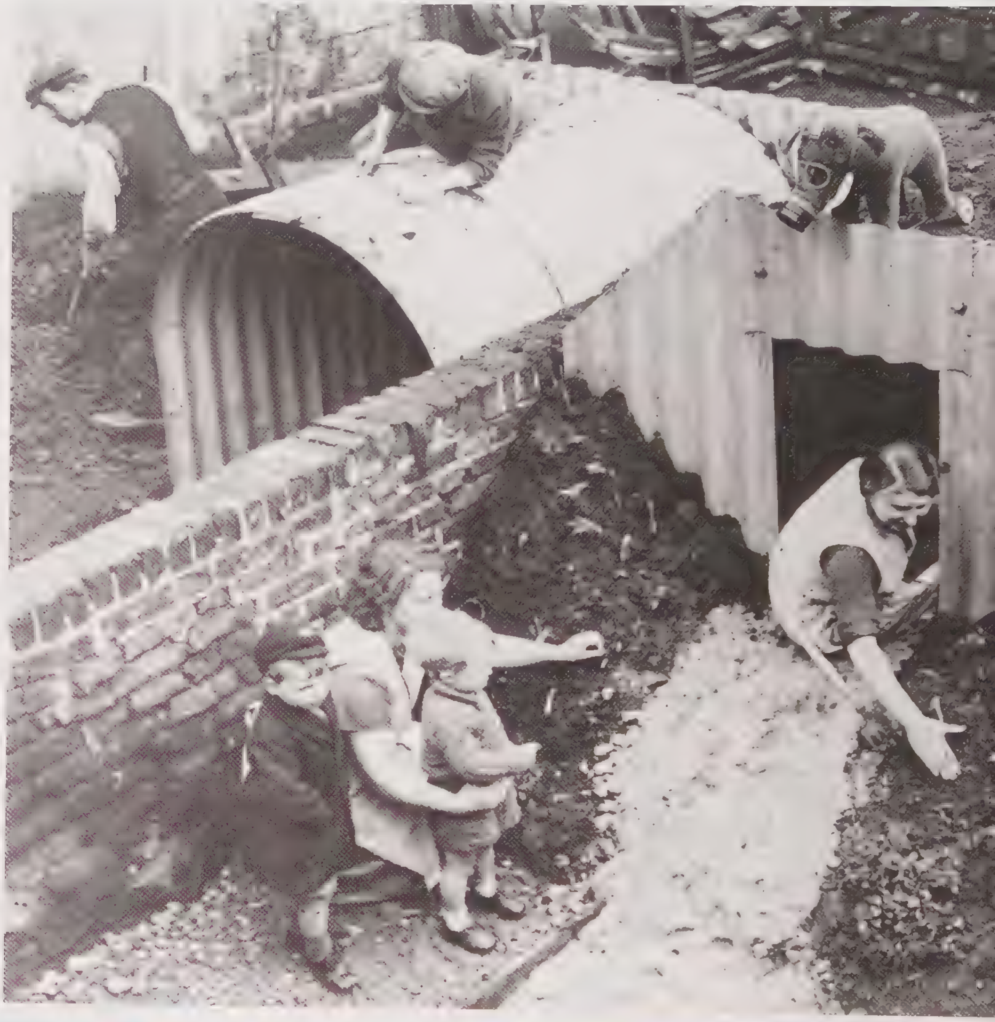
Air raid shelters

Before the war, the government had a clear policy about air raid shelters. It didn't want large shelters, with lots of people deep underground. Instead, its policy was **dispersal** – small surface shelters, one per household, where possible. The government claimed there would be fewer casualties, and people would be more willing to leave these shelters than ones deep underground. Keeping people at work and keeping wartime production high was important.

Households were offered the **Anderson shelter** (if they had a garden) or, if they lived in flats, spaces in **communal shelters**, which were normally built above ground. People dug a hole, so some of the shelter was underground, and used the earth from the hole to pile onto the sides and top of the Anderson shelter (see Source D). In March 1941, the **Morrison shelter** was introduced – which was a steel cage intended to replace a table downstairs (see page 161).

Source D

A photograph taken in March 1939. It shows families building their Anderson shelters in gardens in Islington.



Exam-style question, Section A

Study Source D

How could you follow up Source D to find out more about the provision of air raid shelters in London?

In your answer, you must give the question you would ask and the type of source you could use.

Complete the table below. **4 marks**

Detail in Source D that I would follow up	
Question I would ask	
What type of source I could use	
How this might help answer my question	

Exam tip

This question involves a four-stage process. The example below shows you what to do at each stage.

1 **Pick a detail.** The man on the left-hand shelter seems to be bolting it together.

2 **Question I would ask.** Were the shelters delivered in bits which people had to put together?

3 **Type of source I would use.** Mass Observation diaries.

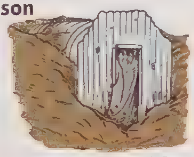
4 **How this might help answer my question.** The diaries would describe what the people had to do to put up their shelters.

Source E

From an account of the ARP service in St. Pancras, written in November 1945 by Charles Newberry, chief ARP officer for the borough. St. Pancras had a population of about 167,000 at the start of the war.

Shelter type	Number	Capacity	Cost
Anderson	7,000	35,780	£51,597
Basements	2,456	28,568	£34,186
Domestic surface	1,547	7,634	£19,747
Communal surface	303	12,572	£63,990
Tenement shelters	146	12,798	£48,530
Public basements	40	15,184	£38,695
Trench shelters	34	17,029	£128,021
Public surface	79	11,961	£60,423
Morrison	1,221	2,952	£1,239
Total	**12,826**	**144,478**	**£446,428**

Anderson



Provided by the council for a single house, in the garden. Built from steel and earth.

Domestic surface

Built from brick or concrete by better off families in their own gardens.

Communal and public surface

Built from brick or concrete by councils, often in the middle of streets. Not popular: many people didn't feel safe.

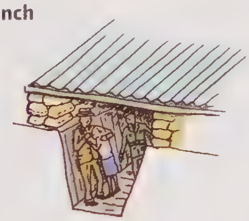
Basements

Some modern houses, or blocks of flats (tenements) had deep cellars which people used as shelters.

Public basements

Some large modern buildings (e.g. office blocks, hotels) had a steel and concrete frame over a deep basement. Many people felt safer in them than surface shelters.

Trench



Built by councils – deep trenches dug in parks with a roof over most of the trench. Very unpopular: people didn't feel safe.

Figure 5.4 The main types of shelter in 1939. The Morrison shelter was introduced later in the war.

Activities

1 Study Sources D and F. They might have been set up as photos to be used as propaganda.
  - a What would the propaganda message be?
  - b Are there any details in the photos that make you think this is the case?

2 Copy out the statements below. For each statement, say whether you think it is **true**, **false** or **partly true**. Support your view using the text and sources.
  - a Gas masks were only issued after war broke out.
  - b The government wanted the cheapest air raid shelters.
  - c London was well prepared when war broke out.

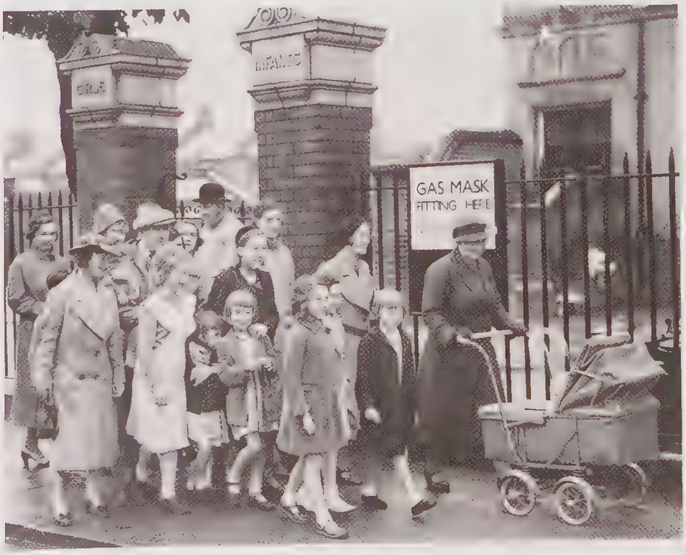
Extend your knowledge

Anderson shelters

The first thing a householder did to put up their shelter was to dig a hole. The shelter was half buried in it. After rain (so through much of the winter) many of them flooded. The hole just filled up with water. This made them very unpopular to use.

Source F

A photograph showing mothers and children leave a school in Ilford after being fitted for their gas masks, 25 September 1938.



THINKING HISTORICALLY Evidence (1b&c)

The message and the messenger

There are many sources of information about the past. Historians use these sources to help them **draw conclusions**. When information is used to help you form a conclusion, it is used as **evidence**.

Read Source B (facing page). In this source, Hitler says a number of things. He was making a public speech that he knew would be:

a heard in Berlin by his audience

b listened to on the radio around Germany

c reported all around the world.

What **information** does the source contain? What was Hitler **saying**? Answer the following questions to find out.

1. Why does Hitler say he will order the bombing of London?
2. What does he say will be the result of this bombing?

Historians are not usually interested in information for its own sake. Historians are interested in **using** information to work out the **answers** to questions about the past. **Use** the information you have just extracted from the source, and the information about its **context** provided above, to try and work out answers to the following questions.

3. What do you think Hitler wanted his supporters in Germany to think when they heard his words?
4. What can we tell about Hitler's beliefs and intentions from the fact that he said these things in public on 4 September 1940?

Imagine you are investigating Hitler's aims in bombing London:

5. What evidence do you think you might look for in statements like Source B, made by people in the Nazi Party at the time?
6. What other types of sources might you want to look at to develop the best answer to your investigation?

Summary

- London was a target because it was the centre of government, the major port, a major centre for industry, and the main transport hub of southern England.
- The government planned Civil Defence measures. Responsibility was divided between the London County Council and the boroughs.
- Preparations included issuing gas masks, air raid shelters, and evacuating children.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Describe how the government prepared for bombing raids on London.

S2 Describe what was done about gas masks, air raid shelters and evacuation.

Challenge

Think about the different types of source used in this enquiry about London and the Second World War.

C1 Using the types of source from Figure 5.1 (page 137) make a table with one page for each type of source. Divide each page into three columns: 'Example', 'Strengths', 'Weaknesses'.

C2 Fill in this table for Sources A, B, C and D.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

Extend your knowledge

Judging sources

- Start with the **provenance** (the nature, origin and purpose of the source). Does this suggest strengths or weaknesses when using this source? For example, we don't know if Source C was taken as propaganda to reassure people everything was calm.
- Move on to content **usefulness**. What can you learn from the source that is relevant? What can you work out from it? Does it tell you new things?
- It is easier to use photos as sources if we know **why** they were taken. Often, we don't. The best you can do is think carefully about the **context** and **content** of the photograph.

5.2 The First Blitz, September 1940–May 1941

Learning outcome

- Understand the nature and impact of the attacks on London up to May 1941.

The nature of the attacks on London

The aims of the bombing campaign

The **first German raid on London was on 25 August 1940**. It was one of a few test raids by the German Air Force. The **real Blitz began on 7 September 1940 and lasted until 10 May 1941**. It was conventional heavy bombing, which killed 28,556 people and injured over 25,578.

At first, the bombing was to soften up London before the planned German invasion. Hitler expected this invasion to start in mid-September; and the London targets were military installations, industrial areas, energy supply centres and communications centres. **On 19 September, Hitler postponed the invasion**. The bombing campaign continued, but the targets changed. The new targets were:

- **civilians and their homes**: the main aim was a high death rate, significant urban damage (including the disruption of essential services) and the destruction of **national treasures**. This was expected to wear down civilian morale and break the will to fight.
- **industry and communications** – in order to damage the war effort.

Also, there was some **retaliation** for British night bombing of Germany. These bombings were not an attack on British forces or directly linked to military or naval operations.

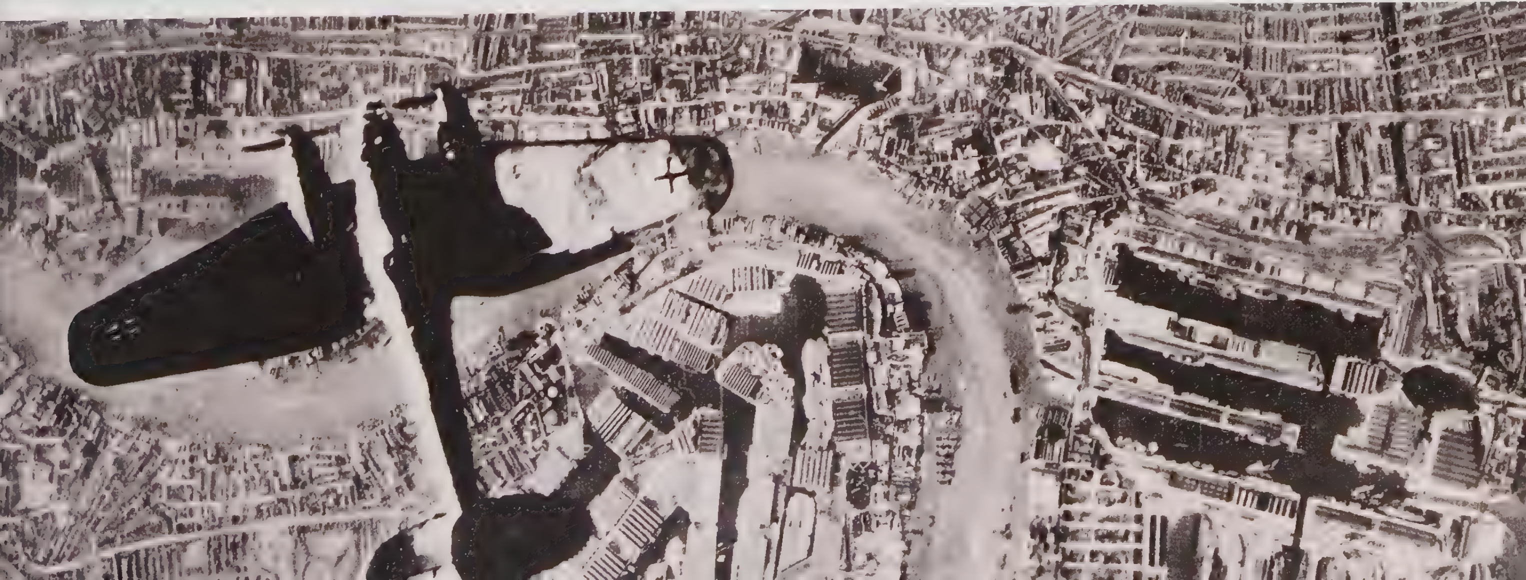
Source B

Part of a speech given by Hitler on 4 September 1940 to a large crowd in Berlin. In it he refers to Britain's night bombing of Germany.

> While the German pilots, the German planes, fly over English land day by day, no Englishman has yet managed to as much as cross the North Sea by daylight. That is why they come at night and drop their bombs – you know it well – indiscriminately, and without plan, on civilian residential centres, on farmsteads, and villages... You will understand that we shall now give a reply, night for night, and with increasing force. And if the British Air Force drops two, three or four thousand kilos of bombs, then we will now drop 150,000, 180,000, 230,000, 300,000 or 400,000 kilos, or more, in one night. If they declare that they will attack our cities on a large scale, we will erase theirs! We will put a stop to the game of these night-pirates, as God is our witness. The hour will come when one or the other of us will crumble, and that one will not be National Socialist Germany.

Source A

A detail from a German photograph taken on 7 September 1940, over London (see also pages 134–35).



Black Saturday (7 September 1940) and the first attacks

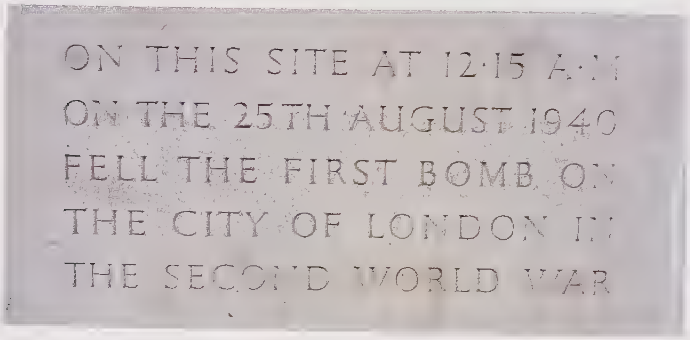
The German attack on London started **just before 5pm on Saturday, 7 September**. It lasted just over 12 hours, with a pause in the early evening. That first night over 400 people were killed and 1,600 seriously injured. In the first days attacks concentrated on the **East End**, because of the docks and the concentration of railways there. Only after the planned German invasion was cancelled, did attacks consistently spread to the rest of London.

Historians use a range of sources to study these attacks. The main ones are:

- **Memories** from people who lived through them. Notice when the memories were recorded. Some, like Source E, were written down soon afterwards. Others were collected up to 60 years afterwards. They *may* be less accurate in details, but don't just jump to this assumption. Think about what is being said, and how it fits with the context and content of the source.
- **Diaries** written at the time. Obviously, they can only record what the people knew, but they do make clear to historians what people **thought** was happening at the time.
- **Official records**, like the **war cabinet** minutes, which were secret at the time. They show what information the government had and the decisions it took.
- **Newspapers and radio news** transcripts, which tell us what the censors **wanted** people to know.
- The **damage done by the bombs** is another important source. ARP sections reported each bomb that fell and surveyors recorded the damage. This information was plotted on a series of maps called the *LCC Bomb Damage Maps*. A digital version has been made at bombsight.org.

Source C

This memorial stone marks the spot in Fore Street where the first bomb fell in London in the Second World War.



Source D

From the minutes of the meeting of the War Cabinet, 9 September 1940, 12.30pm. The cabinet did not meet on Sunday 8th, so this was the first meeting after the attack.

The Chief of the Air Staff reported that during the previous day enemy air activity had been on a considerably reduced scale and the casualties had been:

Our own	Enemy
4 machines	7 destroyed
(2 pilots saved)	3 probable
	8 damaged

The air attack on the previous evening had started before dark and had continued until 5 o'clock that morning. Practically the whole of the enemy effort had been devoted to an attack on London, with acute concentration on the dock area, railways and power stations. Reports showed, however, that, while considerable damage had been done, the intense bombing had had comparatively little effect on undertakings engaged on war production.

The Minister of Home Security reported that the main damage caused by the air raid on the previous evening had been suffered by railways, power stations and the dock area. A number of hospitals had been hit, but most of the damage to utility services would be quickly repaired, and all fires were under control.

Activities

?

1 Make a timeline from September 1939 to March 1945. Give yourself plenty of room. Mark on it the events and periods mentioned in this section.

2 In groups, discuss the purpose of Source A. In each group, you need two speakers and at least two judges.

Speaker 1 must argue it was taken as a propaganda photo to print in newspapers and magazines.

Speaker 2 must argue that it was taken by the air force to analyse the accuracy of their bombing.

The judges must decide.

3 Explain whether Source A is useful in helping you understand why the German air force bombed London.

Source E

From an account of 7 September published in 1943 by Barbara Nixon, who was a part-time ARP warden in central London.

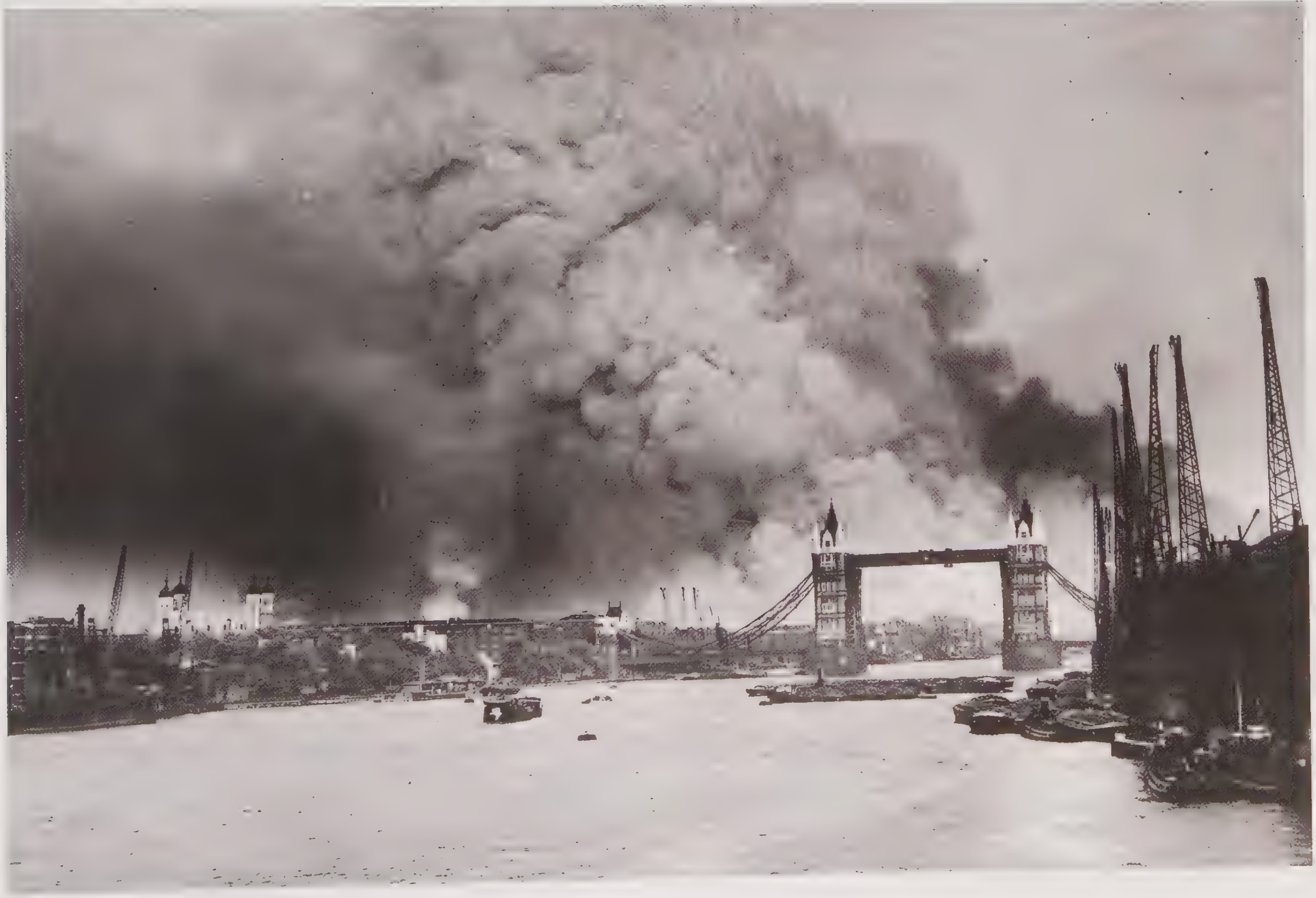
> At 4:43 p.m. the sirens wailed, and the population trooped to the shelters, nobody was seriously frightened. Something might possibly happen this time, but probably not. It was the East End that was 'getting it'. Presently we saw a white cloud rising. A fire-engine went by up the main road. There could not ever in history have been so gigantic a fire. Another fire-engine raced by, nearly every fire appliance in London was heading east. We were only four miles from this horror, but had no conception of what it was like. When the 'all clear' sounded at 6:15 p.m. people left the shelters saying 'About time too'. We sensed that real air-raids had begun, but we did not yet take the full measure of the coming blitz. I had not grasped the principle that an important part of incendiary raids was to provide a beacon for later bombing. I was annoyed when the siren went again.

Activities

1. Compare Source F with a map of central and east London, and work out:
   - **a** where the photographer was standing
   - **b** the area where the smoke is coming from.
2. Cross refer to the website bombsight.org. You can set this map to show the first night of the Blitz. Does this support your answers to Question 1?

Source F

A photograph showing Tower Bridge with smoke and fire in the background during the first mass daylight attack on London, 7 September, 1940.



Activities ?

1. Using Sources E and H, make a timeline showing Barbara Nixon's night.
2. Make notes from Sources E and H about:
   a. conditions in shelters
   b. the morale of Londoners
   c. the duties of ARP wardens.
3. What can you find in Source G to confirm something in Source H?
4. From these examples, what are the strengths and weaknesses of personal accounts and official records as sources to study the Blitz?

Source G

From an account of Black Saturday by Alan Hutt, a journalist working, near London Bridge, on a communist newspaper. It was written in his diary.

As dusk fell about 9 o'clock, the sight from our roof was incredible, a gold and grey smoke-canopied flaming glow stretching thickly as far as one could see. Blackout was dead for the rest of the night and the bombers came back by the light of the fire to blast the East End. David has got a magnificent shot of the fire from London Bridge but the censor refuses to pass any pictures – 'nothing that will confirm the enemy's claims'.

Extend your knowledge

AA guns in London

Before Black Saturday, most German attacks had been on airfields. These had anti-aircraft guns defending them. There were only 267 anti-aircraft guns in London. Within two days of Black Saturday, the number was doubled.

Source H

From an account of 7 September published in 1943 by Barbara Nixon, who was a part-time ARP warden in central London. (Note: any sources in the exam will be much shorter than this. This is a continuation of Source E, page 149.)

[When the sirens started again she went to her post.] The whole sky to the east was blazing red. It seemed as though half of London must be burning, and fifty thousand firemen would not be able to put out a fire of that size. In Shaftesbury Avenue, five miles from the blaze, it was possible to read the evening paper. With a whine and a crash a bomb fell somewhere near and the pavement trembled. It was the first time that I had heard a bomb and in that instant I realised that the whole of London was a target area, and any street might get its share.

When we got back we visited the shelters. They had been apprehensive before, now they were distinctly nervous, although few showed real fright. A warden from the next sector arrived back from his work in the East End. He insisted on going into each shelter, and telling them of the gigantic fires – 'five miles of them' – and the damage, and the casualties, the blood and the horrors.

By 10 p.m. the shelterers were growing exasperated. By midnight they were frightened. Very few of them had imagined that they would have to sit in a shelter for more than an hour or so; neither for that matter, had the authorities. They had not brought rugs or blankets or provisions, some even had no coats, as it had been a warm evening. The wooden benches round the walls were packed, and the remainder had to stand, or sit on bits of newspaper on the concrete floor: the overcrowding was appalling, and the air stank. It had not before occurred to me that a warden would be expected not only just to poke his head round the door to see if there was anything wrong, but to chat to one and all, and try to cheer them up.

By 3 a.m. the raid was heavier than ever and the bombs were much closer – they came down with a tearing sound as well as a whistle. Planes began to circle steadily and monotonously overhead. It was alarming to feel that this time it was we who were the target. I was alarmed. One hadn't got a chance. For half an hour the bombs pounded down all round us; as one struck another started on its downward journey. Neighbouring sectors were hit; ours was unscathed. Three streets away a trench shelter was wrecked, but by a miracle only one man was killed.

At dawn the 'all clear' went, and groups of pale and jaded people trailed back to their homes to snatch a cup of tea before leaving for work. They were cold and exhausted and subdued: 'D'you think we'll get another to-night, Miss?' they asked. It was as well that they could not know that they were to get 'another' for fifty-seven nights on end. That day London had changed. It was not only the damage, at last people realised that there was a serious war on – a war that meant death and destruction. And they did not like the realisation.

Early Problems

The Blitz has become part of Britain's national myth. The media, and people generally, talk about '**the Blitz spirit**'. But at the start of the Blitz, London was not a united city. The first few days showed many problems and many people, particularly the working class East Enders, blamed the government, and thought some people were much better protected than others.

Things improved – but too late for some.

The South Hallsville School disaster

The first nights of the Blitz made 16,000 homeless in East London, many more than the planners had expected. A number of schools were used as temporary rest centres for the homeless. Perhaps over a thousand were moved to South Hallsville School. A plan to evacuate them on 9 September failed when the buses didn't turn up. The coaches did turn up on the 10th, but there was an air raid in progress, and it was thought too dangerous to move the people, so the coaches were sent away. That night, part of the school was hit by a bomb.

Impact of the disaster

As a result of the 'incident', some East Enders left London for the countryside without waiting for official evacuation. Others blamed the Civil Defence systems. The first government action was to ban all mention in the press, because it would be so bad for morale.

Activities ?

1 Describe the causes that led to the South Hallsville School disaster.

2 What can you learn about the disaster from the national source given? (Source I)

3 What can you learn about the disaster from the local sources given? (Sources J and K)

4 A committee of the War Cabinet ordered an investigation of the disaster because of Source I. Does this mean Source I must be the most useful if you want to find out how many people were killed?

5 Are there any advantages in using local sources?

Source I

From a national newspaper, the *Daily Herald*, 11 September 1940. The journalist visited the school early on the 11th, and reported that 450 people were killed.

`Who is to be held responsible for this appalling tragedy in which whole families from wrecked homes in the worst raided area of East London were left by official neglect to die in a bombed refuge centre? Who is responsible for these coaches which did not arrive? The tragedy demands an immediate inquiry.`

Source J

The local weekly paper, 14 September 1940.

`GREAT RIVERSIDE FIRES – BIG DEATH TOLL – Bombed School tragedy, wrecked by a direct hit during Monday night – there were between 400 to 600 men, women and children refugees.`

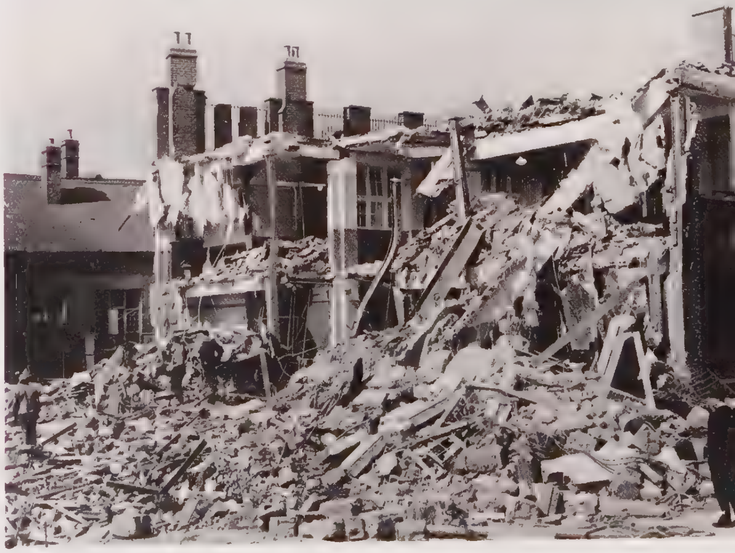
Source K

From the minutes of the local council, 24 May 1941.

`Alderman Wooder said he wished to refer to number of casualties at the South Hallsville School incident, he had with the utmost care, again examined the whole of the evidence and reports, and he was perfectly satisfied that the number of people killed on that occasion was 73, and not over 400 as rumoured.`

Source L

A photograph showing South Hallsville School, the day after the attack.



'Mickey's shelter'

Many people were not happy with the provision of shelters at the start of the Blitz. Government policy was 'dispersal' – small shelters above the ground. In the East End, there weren't enough spaces in these shelters, and people often didn't feel safe in them anyway. Underground stations and basements in large buildings – even the crypts of churches – were used as mass shelters. The basement shelter under the Spitalfields Fruit and Wool Exchange was one of these. It felt safe, so people went there. It was big enough to hold 5,000 people, but probably twice that number turned up. Conditions were awful. There were no toilets and no proper ventilation. Many fainted, and it was so crowded their bodies were passed over people's heads to get them near the door where the air was fresher.

A local optician, Mickey Davis (known as Mickey the Midget), whose shop had been destroyed and who had no work, took over. In the next few days, he formed a committee to run the shelter, and:

- organised cleaning and beds
- persuaded a GP to visit and provide free health care
- persuaded Marks and Spencer to build a canteen for the shelter
- used the profit from the canteen to provide free milk for the children
- persuaded the local authority to recognise it as a shelter and put in toilets and bunks.

Source M

A photograph showing Mickey Davis running a committee meeting in the shelter, 1941. This photo was used in a major news story about Mickey and the shelter.

Source N

From a report on morale written on 27 September 1940. One was written each day by the **Ministry of Information** and sent to several other ministries. The Minister for Information was a member of the War Cabinet. The report was based on information from mail censors, the police, and undercover reporters sent out to talk to people.

> Of the large communal shelters in Stepney, one (Fruit Exchange shelter – holding 5,000 people) is much improved with extra conveniences and a small first-aid post set up by local initiative; Tilbury shelter remains unhealthy and unsanitary.

Activities

How useful is Source N for an enquiry into the conditions in 'Mickey's Shelter'? Draw up a table with three columns, headed: 'Content', 'Provenance', 'Context'. Remind yourself what these terms mean on pp 136–37.

1 In column 1 list information from the source that could be useful.

2 Now use columns 2 and 3 to help you evaluate it. Put the points below into columns 2 or 3. You can add new points if you wish.

a Conditions had improved before 27 September.

b It was produced by the Ministry of Information.

c It was produced to help the government make decisions.

d We know there were problems with large shelters at the start of the First Blitz.

e We know Mickey's activities improved conditions.

3 Draw a line underneath all three columns and create a box headed 'My judgment'. Explain your judgment, giving two criteria. Use one criterion from the provenance list and one criterion from the context list below. You can substitute criteria of your own if you wish.

Provenance	Context
Nature Origin Purpose	Accuracy Selectiveness Typicality

4 When you have done this, repeat the exercise for Source M.

Types of bomb used in 1940–41

There were three main types of bomb:

- **Incendiaries** – dropped mainly by the first wave of bombers. They started fires; and the plan was that later waves of bombers would use these fires as targets. Fires that got out of control caused more damage than bombs. So the fire service worked through the rest of the bombing – with high casualties.
- **High explosives** were mainly dropped by the later waves of bombers. Some bombs had delayed-action fuses so they exploded later, killing rescue workers.
- **Mines**, which were much more powerful, were dropped with a parachute to make them silent. They exploded when they touched metal, so they often did not explode when they fell.

Problems dealing with incendiaries

Incendiaries were small (about 45 cm long) shaped like a wine bottle, and dropped in clusters. The fires they started had to be put out quickly, otherwise they took hold and burnt down at least one building, and often spread. People were encouraged to tackle them themselves. They were advised to keep a bucket of water or a sandbag to smother the fire. But this meant they had to sit up (outside their shelter) all through the raid. In residential areas, people formed fire-watching teams to look after their street; but business premises, which were usually unattended at night and weekends, were vulnerable. The worst raid was the **'second fire of London', 29 December 1940**, when one raid started over 1,500 fires in central London – 163 people were killed.

During the war, the Civil Defence estimated fires did 90% of the damage in London. The Fire Service was stretched to breaking point, with those in London working a '48 hours on, 24 hours off' shift system. Letting people do their own fire-watching wasn't working. On 31 December, in a radio broadcast, Herbert Morrison, the Home Secretary, demanded volunteers for fire-watching in every street and every business. It still wasn't enough and, in April 1941, he introduced conscription for fire-watching – including the use of conscientious objectors*.

Key term

Conscientious objectors*

During the First and Second World Wars, a number of British civilians refused service on the ground of conscience – they believed war and killing to be fundamentally wrong.

Summary

- The first raid on London was 25 August 1940, and the first major raid was Black Saturday, 7 September 1940.
- Shelter policy was for small surface shelters, avoiding the mass use of deep shelters like the Underground.
- The First Blitz originally targeted industry and transport: bombing was heaviest in the East End. When the Germans postponed their invasion plan, all London became the target, as they aimed to break civilian morale.
- Shelter policy had to change – raids lasted for hours and people wanted deep shelters, not surface shelters.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Describe the different types of shelter used.

S2 Describe the different types of bomb used.

S3 Describe the events of Black Saturday.

S4 Explain the importance of 'Mickey's shelter' and the South Hallsville School disaster.

S5 How useful are Sources I, J, K and L for a study of the importance of the South Hallsville School disaster?

Challenge

C1 Why were some shelters more popular than others?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

5.3 The impact of the First Blitz on civilian life

Learning outcomes

- Understand the effects of the First Blitz on the lives of Londoners.
- Understand how this changed in 'The Lull' and the 'Baby Blitz'.

London had 57 consecutive nights of air raids; then a night when the weather was too bad for the Germans to fly; then night raids continued every night until mid-November, when the number of raids dropped.

Government policy about shelters changed. People wanted deep shelters; and the government quickly accepted that Underground stations must be used. The first station was opened on the second night of the Blitz. Facilities were gradually improved, with thousands of bunks set up in the stations by spring 1941. For many people, the pattern of their life included getting to their shelter early to get good places. Some kept their bedding at work and went straight from work to the shelter.

Life for most Londoners was hard:

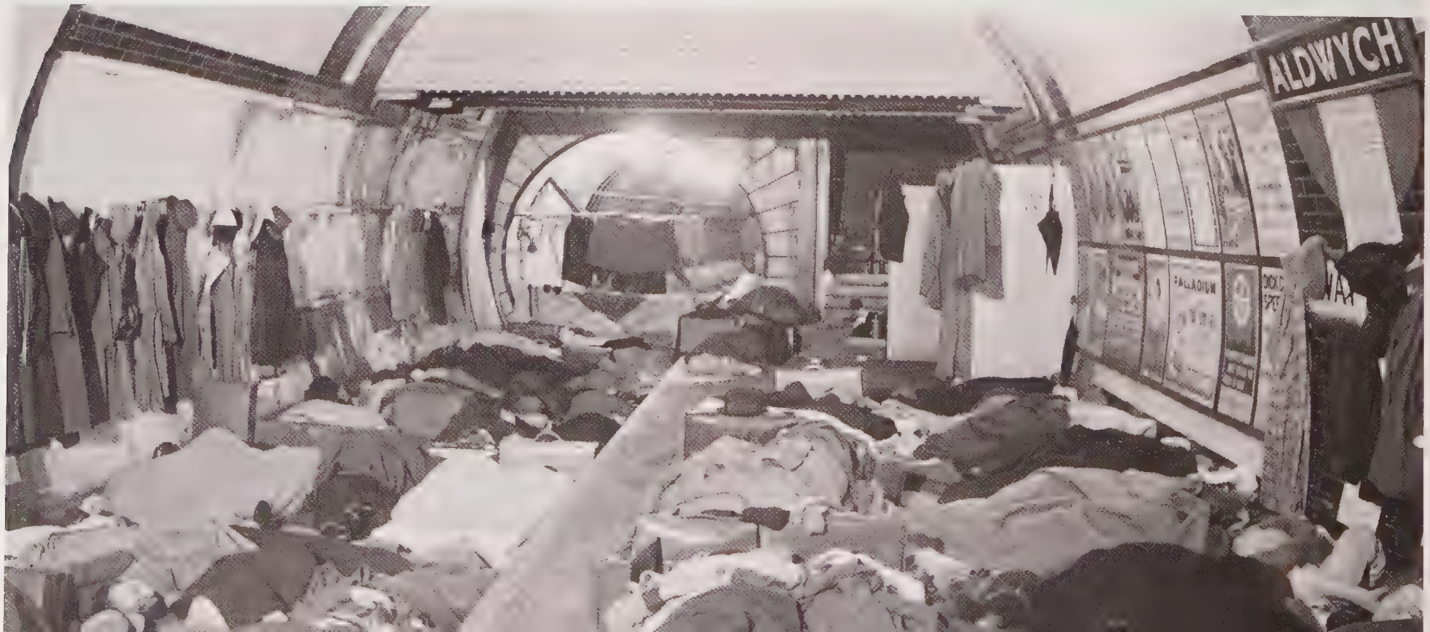
- **Disrupted transport** made getting to work difficult.
- **The Blackout** made it difficult to get anywhere at night.
- **Disrupted gas**, electricity and water supplies meant those who still had a home, couldn't use it normally.
- **Homelessness** – in the first six weeks of the First Blitz, about 250,000 Londoners lost their homes and only 7,000 were rehoused.
- There was some **looting** of bombed houses and businesses – which was very demoralising.
- People lost a lot of **sleep**.
- Over 54,000 people were **killed and injured** between September 1940 and May 1941.
- Civil Defence volunteers dealt with **death and mutilation** on a scale they probably hadn't imagined, and it had an effect on them.
- **Unexploded bombs** meant temporary refugees had to shelter in rest centres until the bombs were dealt with.

Concerns about morale

Our national myth is that everybody was cheerful and positive through the Blitz. It isn't true – and the government were worried about civilian morale. The first weeks saw a real increase in class conflict, which is partly explained by geography. East London (both sides of the river) had the docks, factories and working-class housing. The Underground didn't really run there. Moving west, you come to the City, with its banks and business; then the West End with its theatres, nightclubs, five-star hotels and many rich people.

Source A

The Aldwych Underground station, closed for trains, but opened as a shelter. From *Picture Post*, a British news magazine published in 1940.



At night, looking for safe shelters, thousands walked west from the East End. The stations they slept in were the ones used by the theatregoers and night clubbers going home. On many Underground stations, white lines were painted on the platform and shelterers had to stay behind them until the trains stopped running. This underlined the different experiences of the rich and the poor and led to more ill feeling. In a political protest on 15 September, a group marched from the East End to the five-star Savoy Hotel, waited until the air raid siren went off, then entered and demanded to use the hotel's luxury underground shelter (which included a restaurant and a dance floor). It was full of journalists who were there for a Ministry of Information briefing. No English newspaper printed the story because of censorship, but the War Cabinet discussed it the next day.

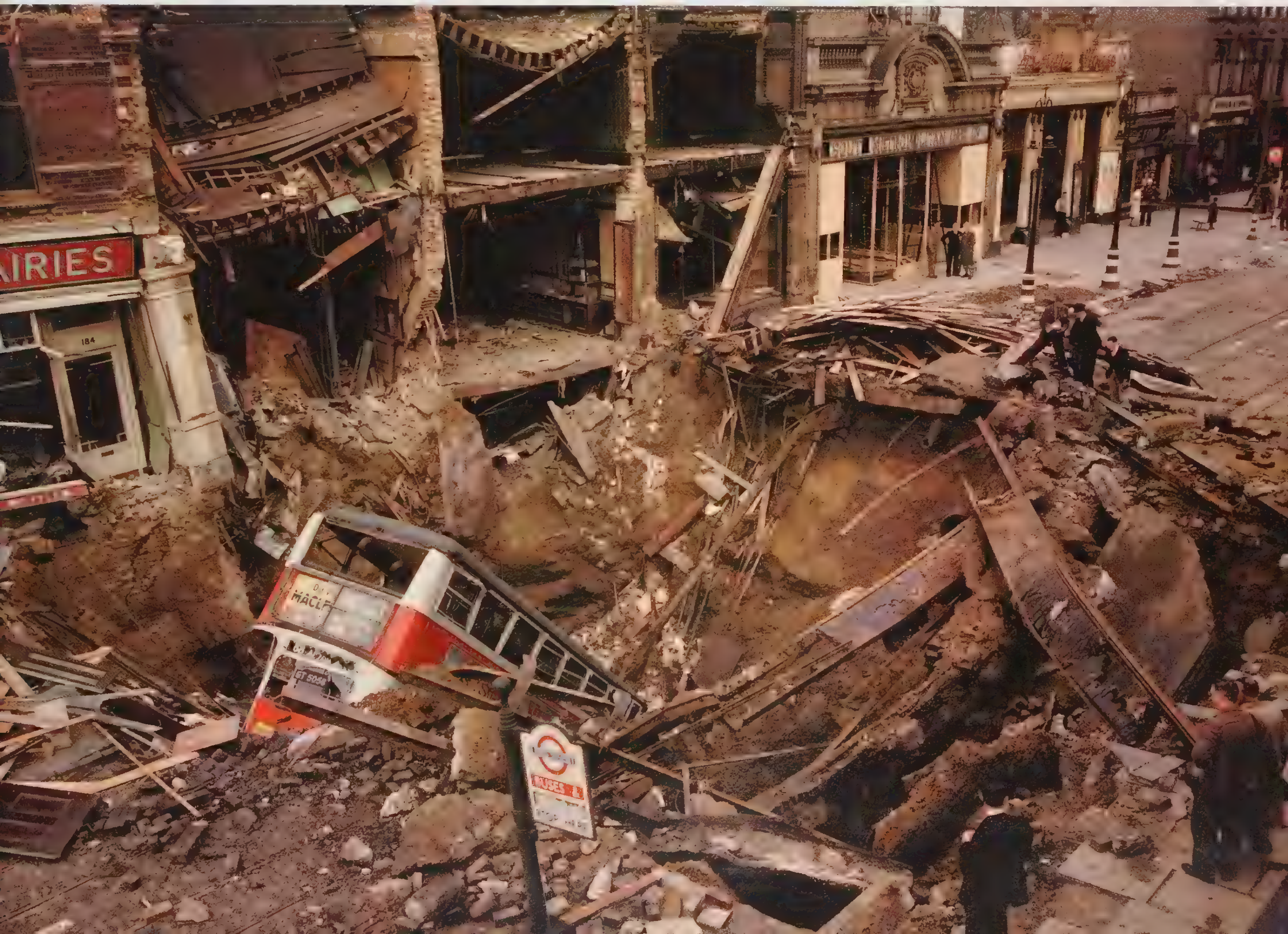
Class tensions relaxed as government action began to help the working-class districts, and when the Germans started to bomb the wealthier parts of London (from late September) and not just the East End.

Shelter life

Conditions in the big communal shelters, whether in basements or Underground stations, were poor. Many of the people using them no longer had anywhere they could wash themselves or their clothes. Most shelters weren't connected to the sewers, so people used chemical toilets. In short, the shelters smelt. But people liked them because they felt safe. Importantly, in the Underground you couldn't hear the bombs (about the only similarity with the Savoy's shelter).

Source B

The 'Balham Tube disaster', 14 October 1940. From an American magazine. The bomb was one of the very powerful mines. (For more about this incident see pages 158–60).



Censorship in action

In the Underground, people may have felt safer than they really were. The government's original policy of dispersal was partly to stop a lot of people being killed in one incident. Once the Underground stations and big basements were used as shelters, large numbers of people were together in one place. A bomb could have a big effect; and some Underground stations were hit by bombs: **Bounds Green** (13 October, 19 dead); **Balham** (14 October, 66 dead); **Sloane Square** (12 November, 37 dead); **Bank** (11 January 1941, 56 dead). However, the news was censored. This was both to stop the Germans finding out the effects of their bombing and to help support civilian morale. It didn't always help morale, because rumours spread and they could be worse than the truth. Sources A and B (pages 154–55) show you how censorship worked. Source A was passed for publication in Britain: it shows a calm and well-organised scene. Source B was not: it was only published in the USA. It shows how powerful the mine was that caused the **'Balham Tube disaster'** (see page 158).

Propaganda

Censorship was one part of the government's work to support the war effort. Propaganda was another.
The government used propaganda to:

- **keep up civilian morale**
- **encourage people to act in the way the government wanted** – from always carrying their gas masks, to using their Anderson shelters
- **stress the importance of the 'war effort'** – from collecting scrap metal for reuse in armaments, to 'digging for victory' and growing more food
- **warn of the dangers of spies** – see Source D.
- **win support from other countries** – especially the USA.

Propaganda was most obvious in posters. A Mass Observation report noted 48 posters within a short walk of its office including:

- eat 'National' wholemeal bread
- keep your children in the country
- how to behave in an air raid shelter
- look out for poison gas
- register for Civil Defence
- help build a plane.

Propaganda could be more subtle. Films were made that had 'appropriate' messages. For example, *The Next of Kin* (1942) was a story about the dangers of talking about war-sensitive matters.

The Ministry of Information was responsible for propaganda, and it was quite scientific, using market research techniques to find out what people were concerned about, and checking on the effectiveness of its campaigns.

Newsreels

There was no television during the Second World War. News programmes in cinemas were the only source of news with moving pictures. Although cinemas were closed at the outbreak of war, most were re-opened within a week and attendances boomed. In 1939, there were about 1,000 million tickets sold in Britain, and attendance went up by 60% during the war. Newsreels were an important source of news, but what they could show was controlled by censorship. They were used as propaganda to convey positive messages.

Extend your knowledge

London Can Take It

Not strictly a newsreel, but a short propaganda film made by the government film unit – *London Can Take It* was made in 1940 to win support in the USA (that's why it has an American narrator). It was also shown in Britain, where it was called *Britain Can Take It.*

It is easy to find with an internet search and it will give you a good flavour of propaganda, and a biased, but real, view of what the Blitz was like.

Work and spotters

Getting to work was difficult, but work was important. One of the main messages of government propaganda was 'carrying on as normal' and, as far as possible, most people did. Employers reported that absenteeism dropped during the Blitz; and the unions reported that workers appreciated flexibility about when they started work. Going to work was an important way of showing you weren't being beaten (and showing your workmates you were still alive). However, during daylight raids, the government still felt too much time was lost when workers were in their shelters. So spotters were introduced. They spent their time on the factory roof and only sounded the alarm when planes were nearby.

Source C

From the Home Intelligence Report, 16 September 1940.

> Big trek each evening to find shelter accommodation for the night – from areas such as Bermondsey, Canning Town, and Paddington. Numbers of people including many children shelter in Underground Stations. In a West End district, it is reported that people bombed out of a public shelter were refused admittance to the large private shelter of a big store.

Home Intelligence Reports

The government was very concerned about civilian morale in 1940. They knew that if morale broke, the war would be lost. The Ministry of Information set up a unit to produce reports on morale. It collected information from many sources, including the police, political parties, large employers, the postal censors and special observers. The Ministry used the reports to target propaganda and shared them with other government departments. These reports are a valuable source, because they describe what people were thinking at the time.

The extent of the devastation

The First Blitz had a significant effect on London:

- 39,193 houses destroyed – 5% of the total.
- 43,619 houses made uninhabitable – 5.5% of the total.
- 31,709 people killed or seriously wounded.

The population of inner London fell by 1.75 million (44%) between 1939 and the end October 1941.

Activities

1 Make a list of the problems people sleeping in shelters had.

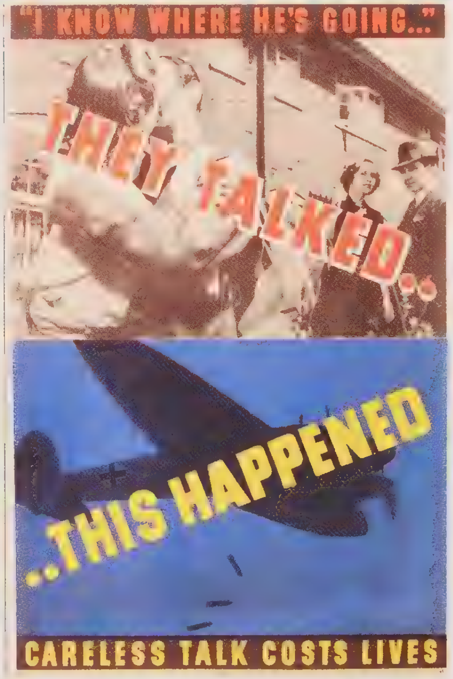
2 Make a table with two columns: 'Action' and 'Effect'. Read pages 154–57 and fill in the table for actions taken by the government during the First Blitz.

3 Prepare a two-minute presentation on how far people's lives were disrupted by the First Blitz.

4 Explain what the government was trying to achieve by censorship and propaganda.

Source D

One of a series of propaganda posters that were part of the 'careless talk costs lives' campaign.


"I KNOW WHERE HE'S GOING.."
THEY TALKED..
..THIS HAPPENED
CARELESS TALK COSTS LIVES

Exam-style question, Section A

Describe **two** features of the government control of news during the Blitz. **4 marks**

Exam tip

This question tests your knowledge of the period. There are only four marks, so don't spend too long on it; but be careful to make sure you get all four marks if you can.

1 Make sure you describe **two** things, because there are two marks for each of the things you describe.

2 For each thing you pick, don't just list it, but add a bit more detail.

Asking questions: The Balham Tube disaster

You need to think about the **three sorts of questions** that historians must ask themselves when looking at sources. Look at Source E.

Content questions

What are you actually looking at? Usually you would have some very important help from the caption but, without that, you can see that Source E is part of an Underground station, filled with a lot of debris that hasn't come from the roof collapsing.

Provenance questions

Now you need the caption! Remember, for provenance, you need to break things down into nature, origin, and purpose.

- **Nature** – it is a photograph.
- **Origin** comes from the caption – this was taken at Balham station, during the clean-up after the bomb of 14 October 1940 (see Source B on page 155).
- **Purpose** can be hard for a photograph. Does it look like it was set up specially? Might it be for use as propaganda? In this case, it's hard to think of a propaganda purpose. Perhaps it was just taken to record the steps in the clean-up process.

Context questions

You know two things that are relevant to Source E.

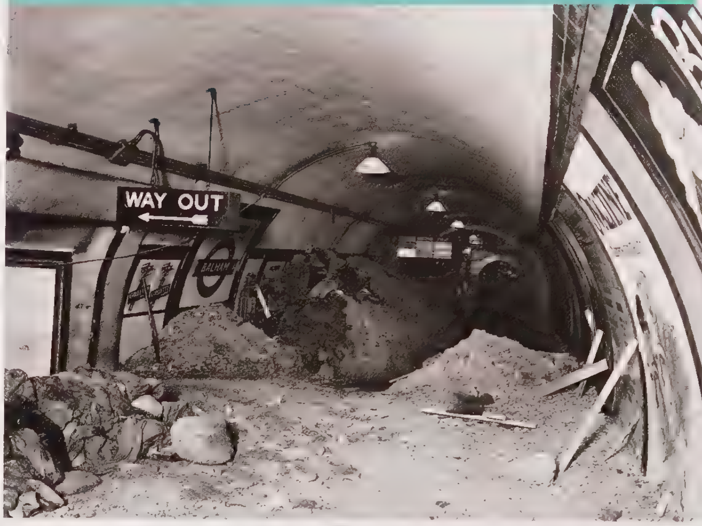
- During air raids, many people used Underground stations as shelters.
- The bomb that hit Balham station was one of the very powerful mines – and it made a vast crater.

So if you were asked how useful Source E is, you could say something like this [key: content, provenance, context]:

'Source E is useful because it shows the extent of the damage inside Balham station. Although we don't know why it was taken, it is unlikely to have been for propaganda, because the British government usually tried to hide how much damage was caused, and anyone seeing the photo would wonder how many people were under the rubble.'

What this does (and what you can do) is explain why the source is useful, using criteria that you have explained based on the three types of question.

Source E



Activities

1. In small groups study Source B (page 155). Answer the three types of question:
   - **a** content questions
   - **b** provenance questions
   - **c** context questions.
2. Compare your answers with others. You probably came up with some different answers. Does this mean one group has to be wrong?

Source F

The memories of Bert Woolridge, an ARP warden on duty in Balham the night of the disaster, when interviewed for a television programme made in 1985.

> As I went into the entrance hundreds of people were racing out in real panic. I got to the bottom of the stairs and the entrance to the bombed platform was blocked. All you could hear was the sound of screaming and rushing water. We managed to get to the platform by wading along through the sludge on the track, and it was terrible. People were lying there, all dead, and there was a great pile of sludge on top of them. Lots were curled up in sleeping positions on the platform. We put the people on stretchers and carried them away through the water. I don't think we found any survivors that night.

Now look at Source G. The content is easy to understand and the provenance fairly straightforward. Although you might say it's a photograph, really the **nature of the source** is a memorial plaque. (The photograph just means you don't have to go to Balham to see it.) Source E, on the other hand, was a historical photograph, preserving a moment in time from the past. We don't know all we might like to about the origin of Source G, but, since it's in the station, Transport for London probably put it there – and its purpose is to remember and honour the dead. The context is the same as when we were looking at Source E. You can do the same sort of analysis, asking yourself the same types of questions, about Source G.

One thing Source G does not tell you is how many people were killed at Balham. There is a reason for this. Historians haven't always agreed on the number; and the present plaque replaced an earlier one that gave a number. The **Commonwealth War Graves Commission** keeps the official register of war dead: and its records list the name and age of 66 people who were killed. Its records were used to produce Sources H and I.

Sources H and I are a good example of the way a source prompts the historian to ask new questions and look for new sources – something you have to do in the exam. Source G raises a question because of the detail it doesn't include: 'How many people were killed?' So the historian looks for another source: and goes to the Commonwealth War Graves Commission record. This adds a detail: the age and sex of those killed. And this prompts another question: 'Was this typical?' So the historian compares the record for Balham with that of another bomb in an Underground station – in this case, Bank Station, almost three months later.

Activities ?

1 Pick a source that could be used by a historian who was studying life in your school now.
  - **a** Describe the source.
  - **b** Give an example of a content question that could be asked about the source and explain what you would learn from it.
  - **c** Give an example of a provenance question (nature, origin, purpose) that could be asked about the source and explain what you would learn from it.
  - **d** Give an example of a context question that could be asked about the source and explain what you would learn from it.
  - **e** Pick a detail in the source, explain a question this would prompt you to ask, and suggest another source you could use to answer your new question.

2 Explain the difference between content questions, provenance questions and context questions.

3 Do an internet search to find the names and ages of those killed at one of the other Tube station bomb incidents mentioned on page 156.
  - **a** Make your own profile of the people killed. How does it compare with those for Balham and Bank?
  - **b** What further questions or enquiries does your new profile prompt?

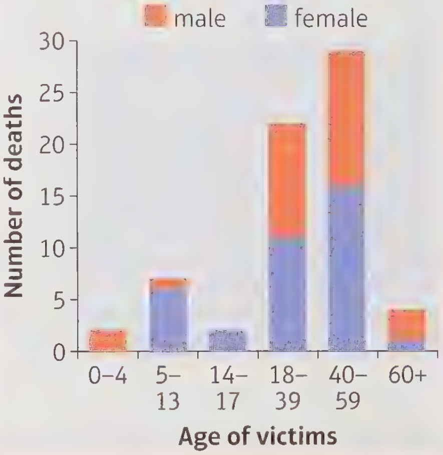
Source G

A plaque in Balham Underground station, London.

In remembrance
of the civilians and London Transport
staff who were killed at this station
during the Blitz on the night of
14 October 1940

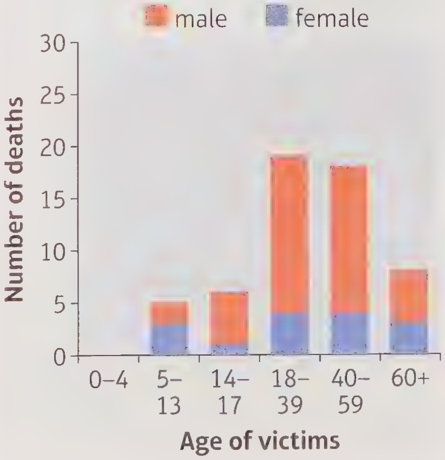
Source H

Analysis of those killed when a bomb hit Balham Tube station on 14 October 1940. Data from the Commonwealth War Graves Commission.



Source I

Analysis of those killed when a bomb hit Bank Tube station on 11 January 1941. Data from the Commonwealth War Graves Commission.



'The Lull', May 1941–January 1944

'The Lull' (11 May 1941–20 January 1944) was a period with plenty of air raids on London, but they weren't happening every night. There was a pattern: raids often followed Allied raids on German cities. So many Londoners only went to the shelters the night after they'd heard of a raid on Germany. A minority continued to sleep in the shelters all the time.

Ongoing precautions

The government started to improve precautions during the First Blitz, but they took a while to happen. Most were ready during the Lull.

- New deep shelters were built (often under Tube stations).
- There were improvements in the shelters: more bunks, more and better toilets, a ticketing system so people didn't have to queue for hours to get a good space.
- Many of the large shelters developed a comprehensive programme of activities – including film shows, dances, drama, adult education classes and libraries.
- From March 1941, the new indoor shelter, the Morrison, was available.
- During the Lull, 1,808 people were killed or seriously injured.

The 'Baby Blitz'

The 'Baby Blitz' (21 January–19 April 1944) was the last attack on London by German aeroplanes. The raids killed and injured 3,793 people; but by this point in the war, Allied air forces were much stronger than the German air force, and in most raids only a few planes got through to London. However, casualties, per month, were 948 compared to 58 in the Lull.

Asking questions in the exam

The exam gives you a start by asking questions. The best way for you to do well is to ask yourself some more questions. These questions will give you the criteria you need to make and explain your judgements and help you work out the best answers. This is what you have been practising in the work on Balham – asking questions to help you find the best criteria to answer the exam question. The criteria you use as the reasons for your answer are one of the main things you will get marks for. So you should:

- ask yourself the questions
- use the questions to help you decide the best criteria
- use the criteria to explain your answer.

THINKING HISTORICALLY Evidence (3a)

The value of evidence

Read Source F, then work through the tasks that follow.

1 Write down **at least two** ways in which Woolridge's memories are useful for explaining what happened at Balham station.

2 Compare your answers with a partner, then try to come up with **at least one** limitation of the source for explaining what happened at Balham station.

3 With your partner, decide how useful this source is for explaining what happened on a scale of 1 to 10 (10 being very useful).

4 What if the source was used to answer the question: 'Exactly how many people were killed when the bomb hit Balham station?'

  a Write down any ways in which the source is useful for answering this new question.

  b Write down any limitations for answering the new question.

  c With your partner, decide how useful this source is for answering the question on a scale of 1 to 10.

  d Can you think of another enquiry about the Balham disaster for which this would be a useful source? Write it down and score the source on a scale of 1 to 10.

5 Compare your scores out of 10. How does the question being asked affect how useful a source is? Explain your answer.

6 Can you think of any other factors that might affect the usefulness of the source?

Activities ?

1 Explain why the period from May 1941 to January 1944 was called the Lull.

2 Why might the improvements in the shelters have been introduced during the Lull, not the First Blitz?

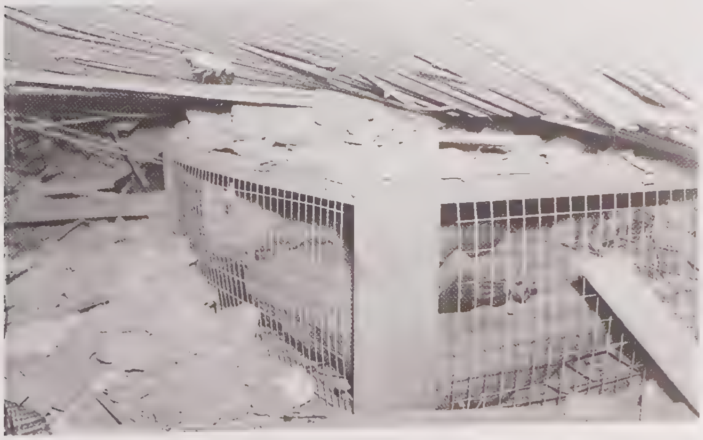
Bethnal Green disaster, 3 March 1943

Bethnal Green was one of the few Underground stations in the East End, and a popular shelter during the First Blitz when it held up to 7,000 people. During the Lull, there were only 200–300 regular users. The night before the disaster, there had been a heavy Allied raid over Germany, so many people decided to use the shelter the next night. The siren went off at 8.17pm. About 1,500 people got safely into the shelter, but then new anti-aircraft rockets were fired from nearby – the first time they had been used. People outside panicked, thinking they were bombs, and rushed down the staircase. A woman with a baby fell at the bottom of the stairs, and 173 people died in the crush, as those outside kept pushing to get in. There were no big crush incidents in the First Blitz, and this was by far the worst of the war.

There was an enquiry, but it was kept secret until after the war. All news was censored, so the incident did not lead to publicity about the danger of crush incidents. It did lead to more ticketing systems for shelters but, as ticketing meant more people came at the last minute, this would not have helped in a similar situation. There was no publicity about the sound of the new rockets either. How can such a major incident have had so little impact? It shows just how important the government thought censorship was to protect civilian morale – and how vital secrecy about new weapons was.

Source J

One of a series of government photographs, published in 1941, showing a test of a Morrison shelter. It was put in a bomb-damaged house, which was then blown up. The shelter was designed to replace a table, and other photographs show a family eating their dinner on one, sleeping in one, and even playing table tennis on one!



Activities

1 Explain what caused the Bethnal Green disaster.

2 How useful is Source J for:

- **a** a study of propaganda during the Blitz
- **b** a study of air raid precautions during the Blitz
- **c** a study of bomb damage during the Blitz
- **d** a study of the Bethnal Green disaster?

3 Is there any evidence that censorship and propaganda continued after the end of the First Blitz?

Summary

- The First Blitz caused major disruption of life in London and an increase in social tension.
- Improvements in shelters came both as a result of government action and of people taking charge themselves.
- The government worried about civilian morale, tracked it closely, and used censorship and propaganda to keep it high.
- During the Lull, shelters got better and people developed new patterns of using them.
- The Baby Blitz increased casualties.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 List the changes the Blitz caused to the life of an average Londoner.

S2 Explain what the Lull was.

S3 List the advantages of a Morrison Shelter.

S4 What can you learn about the Balham Tube disaster from Sources E and F?

Challenge

C1 Explain the connection between a British bombing raid on Berlin and the Balham Tube disaster.

C2 How useful is each of Sources C and D for a study of government use of propaganda?

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

5.4 V1 and V2 attacks, June 1944–March 1945

Learning outcomes

- Understand the nature and impact of the V1 and V2 attacks on London.
- Understand the effects of these attacks on the lives of Londoners.

The V1 attacks

In the spring of 1944, most people in Britain were waiting expectantly for news of the invasion of France, which they believed would be the beginning of the end of the war. The invasion began on 6 June; but Home Intelligence reports don't show a great rise in morale in London because, on the night of **12/13 June**, London was attacked by a new weapon – the **V1, or flying bomb**. This was a **pilotless aeroplane**, aimed (with no precise accuracy) at London, from launch sites in northern France and the Netherlands. Over 9,000 were fired in the ten-month campaign. 2,515 hit London, the rest crashed or were destroyed by anti-aircraft batteries or the RAF. The early weeks of the attack caused severe damage and many casualties, which may have been even harder for Londoners to accept when they believed that winning the war was just a matter of time.

The V1s:

- Brought **day-time bombing** to London for the first time since the autumn of 1940.
- Usually **didn't trigger air raid warnings**, because they flew so low; but also because the attacks happened all through the day and night, and it wasn't possible to have constant air raids. However, they could be clearly heard and once the engine stopped, it took about 12 seconds for them to crash and explode. This wasn't long enough to get to a shelter, so most people threw themselves flat or took cover in doorways.
- **Tended to all use the same routes** to London; so the suburbs on these routes, particularly Deptford and Croydon, were hit most often.

The V1 attacks had a big impact:

- Because the attacks happened all through the day, and weren't like a major raid when you could take shelter, the **casualties were high**. Flying glass from the explosions caused most deaths and injuries.
- **The government didn't inform people** about the bombs until 16 June and, even then, did not reveal how destructive they had been.
- After two weeks, **1,600 people had been killed and 10,000 injured**, and **over 200,000 houses had been damaged**.

Source A

From the diary of Frank Edwards, a 36 year old London factory worker, Wednesday, 28 June 1944. Edwards wrote his diary for Mass Observation.

> Today there has been a lot of low cloud and it has been very dull nearly all day. In consequence it has given the flying bomb a good chance and we have been pestered with them all day since 8.30 this morning. Alerts have been going all day so have the morning signals from our spotters at work – they have certainly had a time of it and no less than eight times we had to drop flat. They have been well over the district – NW London where I work – today and whilst we have had no incidents there have been some pretty big bangs fairly close, so they have made us jump a few times.

Activities

Your enquiry is regarding the effects of the V1 bombs. You need to decide how useful Sources A and B are for this enquiry.

1 Use the three types of questions (see pages 158–59) to help you work out the criteria to judge the usefulness of Sources A and B. Discuss these questions in small groups – each group working on just **one** source.

  a What can you tell from the content of the source about how useful it is?

  b What do you know about the provenance of the source? Think about nature, origin and purpose. How does this affect how useful it is?

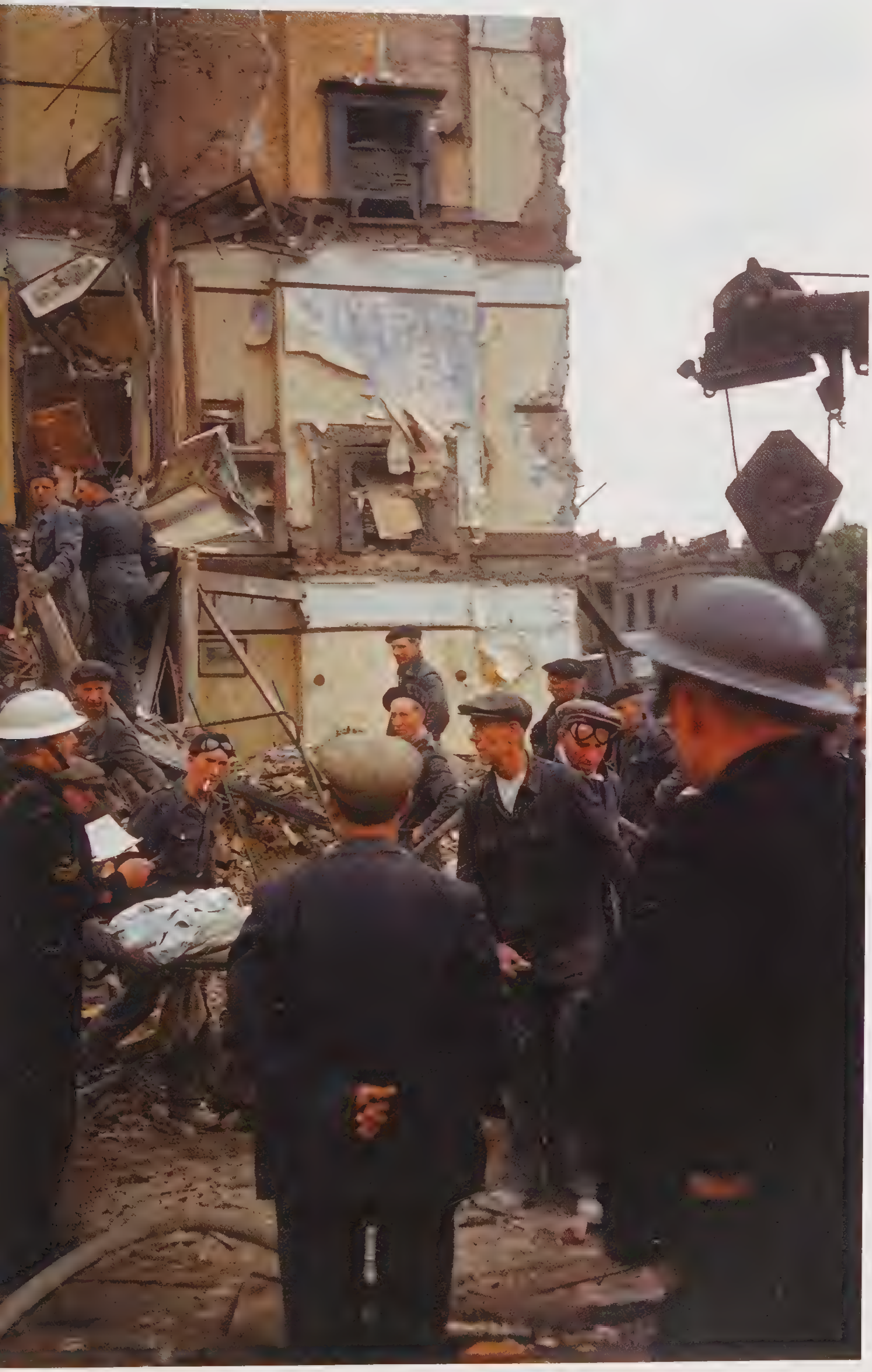
  c What do you know about the context of the source (the V1 attacks and the situation in 1944) and how does this affect how useful it is?

  d What conclusions have you come to? Remember, use the questions to give you criteria to support your judgement.

2 Compare your answers with a group that worked on the other source.

Source B

A photograph showing wardens and rescue crews taking the injured and dead from a building hit by a V1, July 1944. This was taken for and used in *Life*, a US news magazine.



Extend your knowledge

Mass Observation

Mass Observation was set up in 1937 to find out what ordinary people thought about their lives and what was happening in the world. It used some of the ideas of **anthropologists** (who study different ways of life and cultures) and applied them to Britain at the time. It got its money by publishing books and articles on its research.

In 1939, Mass Observation invited people to keep diaries and send them in. About 500 people took part in the diary project, and many of them were still writing diaries at the end of the war. These diaries weren't completely private. The diarists knew Mass Observation staff would probably read them and might even quote them in a report. If they were quoted, however, they were quoted anonymously (see Source D on page 164).

The founders of Mass Observation had left-wing political views, and their reports often criticised government policy. At the start of the war, the government used Mass Observation reports when it was setting and changing policy. During the Blitz, the Ministry of Information commissioned some research on morale from Mass Observation. The original diaries, which were the basis for so much of Mass Observation's work, survive and can now be read in a university archive or online.

The V2 attacks

The Germans had a second new weapon, the V2. The V2 was **the first ballistic missile** – a rocket that carried a warhead. It was so fast, it arrived and exploded before people heard it coming, and it was impossible to stop. The sound was new, it was a double bang, because the rocket broke the sound barrier. It could be heard ten miles away! **The first V2s hit London on 8 September 1944**, and V1 and V2 attacks continued until the launch sites were captured by the Allied advance in Europe. **The last V2 hit London on 27 March 1945, and the last V1 on 29 March 1945**. The government had known the Germans were developing a rocket since the start of the war and, in the summer of 1944, they were worried and planning a possible mass evacuation of London. The weapons were less powerful and less successful than the government feared, but they still tried to keep the attacks secret. Newspapers reported that the large explosions caused by the first two V2 attacks were gas main explosions. Londoners started calling the rockets flying gas mains. **Churchill eventually announced that London was under long-range rocket attack on 10 November 1944**.

The Deptford V2 disaster, 25 November 1944

The first V2 attack to be widely reported in the newspapers was the 25 November V2 in New Cross, Deptford. It hit Woolworths, the area's largest shop, on a busy Saturday lunchtime. 160 people were killed and 200 injured.

The scale and impact of the V1 and V2 attacks

- **Civilian morale** was affected in the summer of 1944 – absenteeism amongst factory workers was higher than at any time in the First Blitz.
- A new wave of **evacuation** began – in July 1944, 559,000 people were evacuated from London.
- **More people slept in the Underground** again – 81,240 per night in July 1944.
- Over 30,000 **houses were destroyed** and 1.3 million **houses were damaged**.
- The **government's popularity fell** because of their delay in officially admitting to the V2 attacks, and their inability to protect London when the war seemed almost won.
- The combined V1 and V2 attacks **killed or seriously injured 28,891 people**.

However, Londoners soon got used to the new threats. By November, there were only 18,000 sheltering in the Underground and most of the evacuees were home.

Source C

From a statement by Winston Churchill, the prime minister, in parliament, on 10 November 1944.

For the last few weeks the enemy has been using his new weapon, the long-range rocket, and a number have landed at widely scattered points in this country. No official statement about the attack has been issued. The reason for this silence was that any announcement might have given information useful to the enemy.

Last Wednesday, a number of highly coloured accounts of the attacks on this country, was issued by the German High Command. The statements in this announcement are a good reflection of what the German Government would wish their people to believe. There is, however, no need to exaggerate the danger. The scale and effects of the attack have not hitherto been significant. Doubtless the enemy has hoped by his announcement to induce us to give him information which he has failed to get otherwise. I am sure that this House, the Press and the public will refuse to oblige him in this respect.

Source D

From a Mass Observation report for June 1944.

Female, 35: Have you heard, it's the Secret Weapon! All the girls here say so, it's those rocket planes. It was very bad round Kentish Town – several of them come from there. I suppose there'll be a lot more of it, now they've started. Still, I mean, it's not as bad as we thought the Secret Weapon would be.

Female, 30: Outwardly, it doesn't seem to affect me – I carry on with what I'm doing in the day and I sleep at night. But my nerves seem to be edgy – my hands tremble and I feel awfully sick before and after the thing explodes. I feel confident though that we'll be able to find a counter-measure. But these things are bloody whilst they're on.

Source E

Bob Street, in 1994, remembers the V2 that hit Woolworths in Deptford. He was taking part in a series of remembrance workshops to mark the 50th anniversary of the attack.

> I was 8 years old. That morning my mother had said that we'd meet in Woolworths. The [V2 exploded]. I heard someone saying "it's Woolworths" and I can remember distinctly saying "my mum's up there" and this chap said "well, you'd better get up there, son". I started to run up the hill. My mother was running down the hill, trying to get back to where she saw me last. We were on opposite corners of Batavia Road, but we couldn't see each other for the dust and the muck that was flying about. It was only that we were calling out to each other that we found each other. We went straight home. No windows were left, the doors were all open. That's the only time during the war I remember my mother actually crying. Like everyone else, she'd just about had enough. She'd gone into the bakers and the lady that she had been with carried on and was dead outside Kennedy's. When my mum came out of the shop she saw bits of bodies falling about all over the place. Later that evening my mum's sister came saying, had mum seen her daughter? She went to Woolworths with her three friends and they never found any of them. All they found was a bit of her identity card stuck on the steps of the church and her sister recognised a hair slide. That's all they ever found.

Exam-style question, Section A

Study Sources E and F

How useful are Sources E and F for an enquiry into the effects of V2 attacks?

Explain your answer, using Sources E and F and your own knowledge of the historical context. **8 marks**

Exam tip

Use the three questions to help you work out the criteria to support your answer. Good answers will consider:

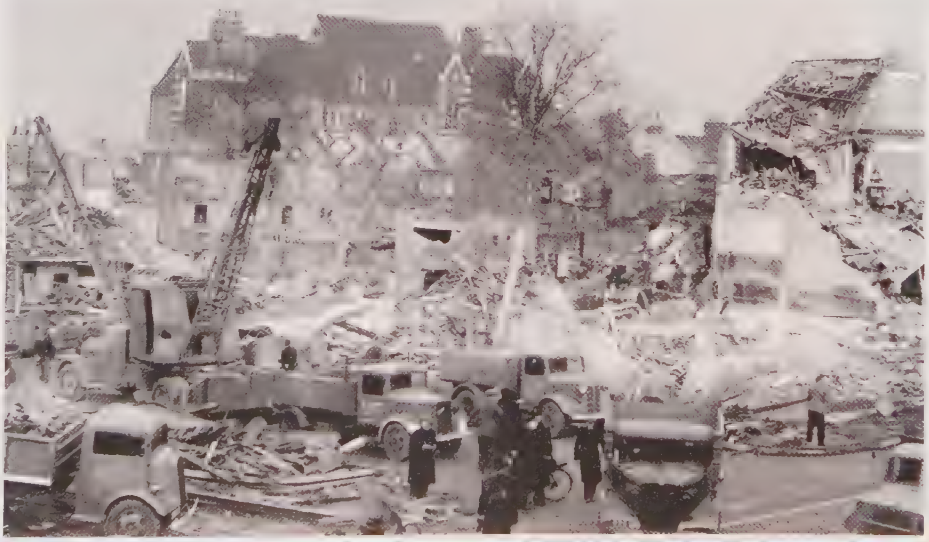
- the content
- the provenance
- the context.

Summary

- V1 and V2 attacks were mainly daytime raids, and caused more casualties because people were out and at work.
- Air defences found a way of stopping most V1 attacks after a few months – but not the V2.

Source F

A photograph showing the aftermath of the V2 that hit Woolworths in Deptford, not published until 26 April 1945, with the original caption: "167 people, mostly women and children lost their lives when a rocket made a direct hit during the lunch-hour rush on a Woolworths and a Cooperative Store in New Cross Road in November last year. Both stores and the pavement were crowded with shoppers when this incident, the worst of the rocket campaign, occurred and rescue workers were still digging for victims more than 24 hours later".



Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Make a timeline for the V1 and V2 attacks.

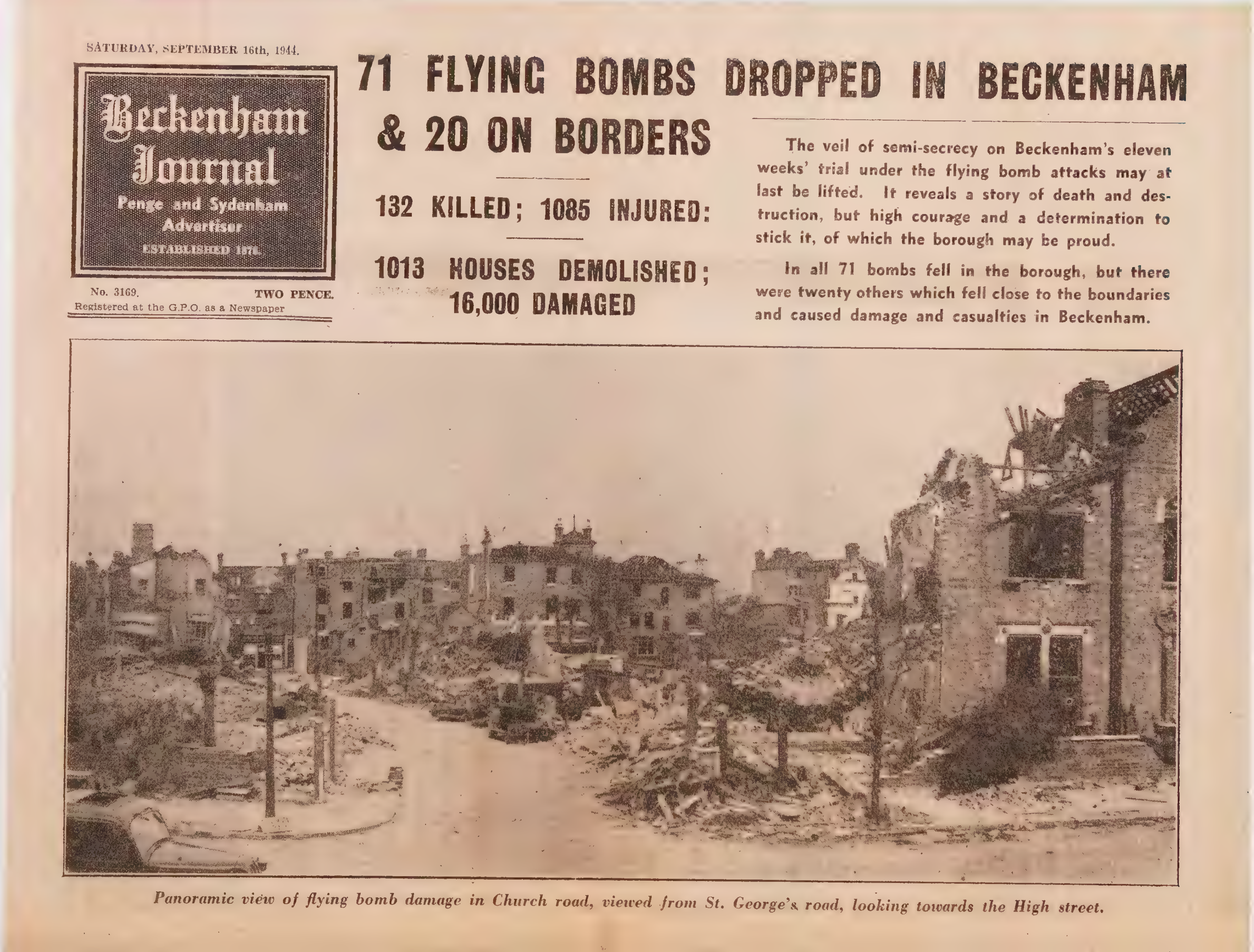
S2 What can you learn about V2 attacks from Source E?

Challenge

C1 Explain why the government delayed announcing the V2 attacks.

Source G

The front page of a local newspaper, the *Beckenham Journal*, for 16 September 1944. Beckenham is in south London.



SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 16th, 1944.

Beckenham Journal
Penge and Sydenham
Advertiser
ESTABLISHED 1876.

No. 3169. TWO PENCE.
Registered at the G.P.O. as a Newspaper

71 FLYING BOMBS DROPPED IN BECKENHAM & 20 ON BORDERS

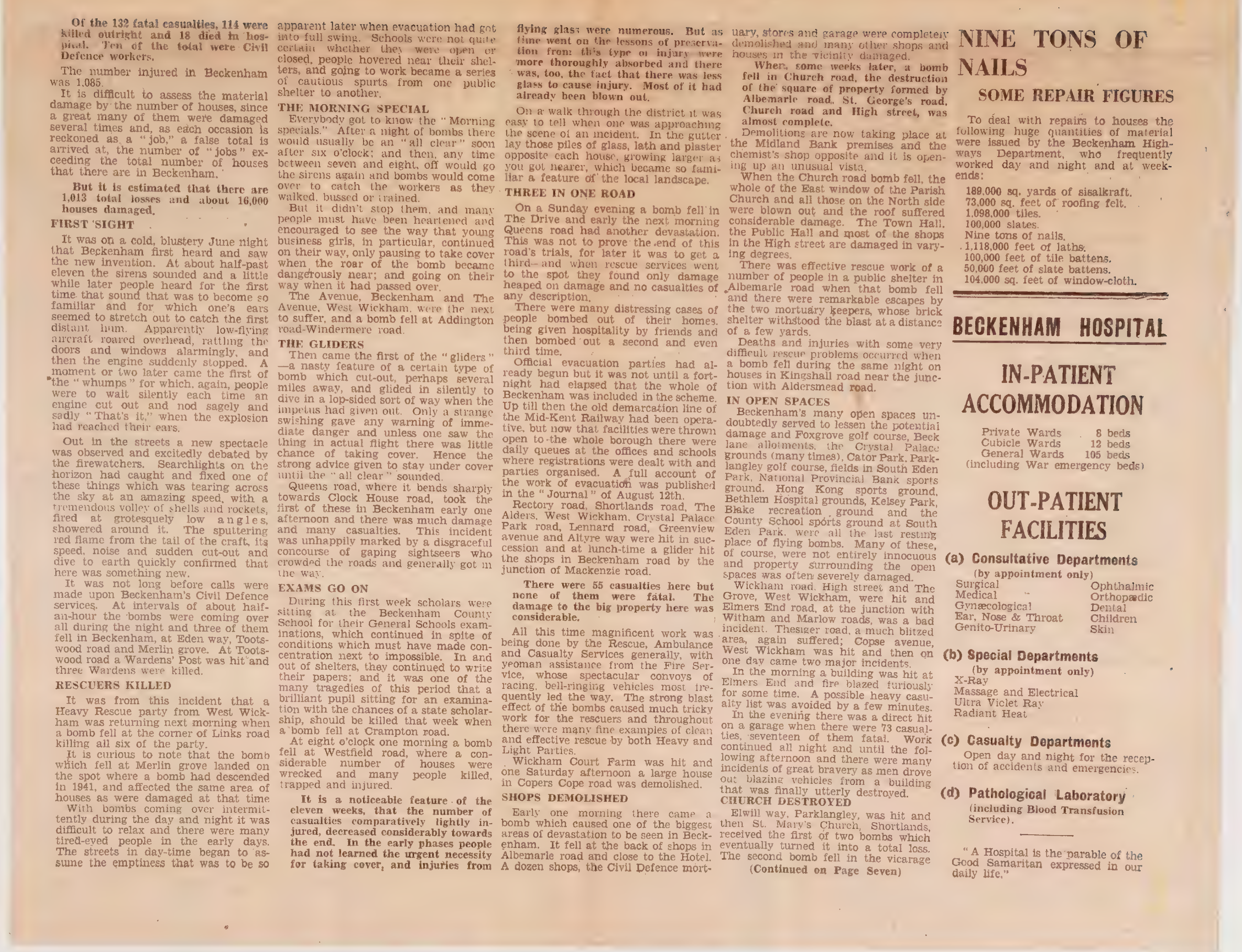
132 KILLED; 1085 INJURED:

1013 HOUSES DEMOLISHED; 16,000 DAMAGED

The veil of semi-secrecy on Beckenham's eleven weeks' trial under the flying bomb attacks may at last be lifted. It reveals a story of death and destruction, but high courage and a determination to stick it, of which the borough may be proud.

In all 71 bombs fell in the borough, but there were twenty others which fell close to the boundaries and caused damage and casualties in Beckenham.

Panoramic view of flying bomb damage in Church road, viewed from St. George's road, looking towards the High street.



Of the 132 fatal casualties, 114 were killed outright and 18 died in hospital. Ten of the total were Civil Defence workers.

The number injured in Beckenham was 1,085.

It is difficult to assess the material damage by the number of houses, since a great many of them were damaged several times and, as each occasion is reckoned as a "job," a false total is arrived at, the number of "jobs" exceeding the total number of houses that there are in Beckenham.

But it is estimated that there are 1,013 total losses and about 16,000 houses damaged.

FIRST SIGHT

It was on a cold, blustery June night that Beckenham first heard and saw the new invention. At about half-past eleven the sirens sounded and a little while later people heard for the first time that sound that was to become so familiar and for which one's ears seemed to stretch out to catch the first distant hum. Apparently low-flying aircraft roared overhead, rattling the doors and windows alarmingly, and then the engine suddenly stopped. A moment or two later came the first of the "whumps" for which, again, people were to wait silently each time an engine cut out and nod sagely and sadly "That's it," when the explosion had reached their ears.

Out in the streets a new spectacle was observed and excitedly debated by the firewatchers. Searchlights on the horizon had caught and fixed one of these things which was tearing across the sky at an amazing speed, with a tremendous volley of shells and rockets, fired at grotesquely low angles, showered around it. The sputtering red flame from the tail of the craft, its speed, noise and sudden cut-out and dive to earth quickly confirmed that here was something new.

It was not long before calls were made upon Beckenham's Civil Defence services. At intervals of about half-an-hour the bombs were coming over all during the night and three of them fell in Beckenham, at Eden way, Tootswood road and Merlin grove. At Tootswood road a Wardens' Post was hit and three Wardens were killed.

RESCUERS KILLED

It was from this incident that a Heavy Rescue party from West Wickham was returning next morning when a bomb fell at the corner of Links road killing all six of the party.

It is curious to note that the bomb which fell at Merlin grove landed on the spot where a bomb had descended in 1941, and affected the same area of houses as were damaged at that time

With bombs coming over intermittently during the day and night it was difficult to relax and there were many tired-eyed people in the early days. The streets in day-time began to assume the emptiness that was to be so apparent later when evacuation had got into full swing. Schools were not quite certain whether they were open or closed, people hovered near their shelters, and going to work became a series of cautious spurts from one public shelter to another.

THE MORNING SPECIAL

Everybody got to know the "Morning specials." After a night of bombs there would usually be an "all clear" soon after six o'clock; and then, any time between seven and eight, off would go the sirens again and bombs would come over to catch the workers as they walked, bussed or trained.

But it didn't stop them, and many people must have been heartened and encouraged to see the way that young business girls, in particular, continued on their way, only pausing to take cover when the roar of the bomb became dangerously near; and going on their way when it had passed over.

The Avenue, Beckenham and The Avenue, West Wickham, were the next to suffer, and a bomb fell at Addington road-Windermere road.

THE GLIDERS

Then came the first of the "gliders"—a nasty feature of a certain type of bomb which cut-out, perhaps several miles away, and glided in silently to dive in a lop-sided sort of way when the impetus had given out. Only a strange swishing gave any warning of immediate danger and unless one saw the thing in actual flight there was little chance of taking cover. Hence the strong advice given to stay under cover until the "all clear" sounded.

Queens road, where it bends sharply towards Clock House road, took the first of these in Beckenham early one afternoon and there was much damage and many casualties. This incident was unhappily marked by a disgraceful concourse of gaping sightseers who crowded the roads and generally got in the way.

EXAMS GO ON

During this first week scholars were sitting at the Beckenham County School for their General Schools examinations, which continued in spite of conditions which must have made concentration next to impossible. In and out of shelters, they continued to write their papers; and it was one of the many tragedies of this period that a brilliant pupil sitting for an examination with the chances of a state scholarship, should be killed that week when a bomb fell at Crampton road.

At eight o'clock one morning a bomb fell at Westfield road, where a considerable number of houses were wrecked and many people killed, trapped and injured.

It is a noticeable feature of the eleven weeks, that the number of casualties comparatively lightly injured, decreased considerably towards the end. In the early phases people had not learned the urgent necessity for taking cover, and injuries from flying glass were numerous. But as time went on the lessons of preservation from this type of injury were more thoroughly absorbed and there was, too, the fact that there was less glass to cause injury. Most of it had already been blown out.

On a walk through the district it was easy to tell when one was approaching the scene of an incident. In the gutter lay those piles of glass, lath and plaster opposite each house, growing larger as you got nearer, which became so familiar a feature of the local landscape.

THREE IN ONE ROAD

On a Sunday evening a bomb fell in The Drive and early the next morning Queens road had another devastation. This was not to prove the end of this road's trials, for later it was to get a third—and when rescue services went to the spot they found only damage heaped on damage and no casualties of any description.

There were many distressing cases of people bombed out of their homes, being given hospitality by friends and then bombed out a second and even third time.

Official evacuation parties had already begun but it was not until a fortnight had elapsed that the whole of Beckenham was included in the scheme. Up till then the old demarcation line of the Mid-Kent Railway had been operative, but now that facilities were thrown open to the whole borough there were daily queues at the offices and schools where registrations were dealt with and parties organised. A full account of the work of evacuation was published in the "Journal" of August 12th.

Rectory road, Shortlands road, The Alders, West Wickham, Crystal Palace Park road, Lennard road, Greenview avenue and Altyre way were hit in succession and at lunch-time a glider hit the shops in Beckenham road by the junction of Mackenzie road.

There were 55 casualties here but none of them were fatal. The damage to the big property here was considerable.

All this time magnificent work was being done by the Rescue, Ambulance and Casualty Services generally, with yeoman assistance from the Fire Service, whose spectacular convoys of racing, bell-ringing vehicles most frequently led the way. The strong blast effect of the bombs caused much tricky work for the rescuers and throughout there were many fine examples of clean and effective rescue by both Heavy and Light Parties.

Wickham Court Farm was hit and one Saturday afternoon a large house in Copers Cope road was demolished.

SHOPS DEMOLISHED

Early one morning there came a bomb which caused one of the biggest areas of devastation to be seen in Beckenham. It fell at the back of shops in Albemarle road and close to the Hotel. A dozen shops, the Civil Defence mortuary, stores and garage were completely demolished and many other shops and houses in the vicinity damaged.

When, some weeks later, a bomb fell in Church road, the destruction of the square of property formed by Albemarle road, St. George's road, Church road and High street, was almost complete.

Demolitions are now taking place at the Midland Bank premises and the chemist's shop opposite and it is opening up an unusual vista.

When the Church road bomb fell, the whole of the East window of the Parish Church and all those on the North side were blown out and the roof suffered considerable damage. The Town Hall, the Public Hall and most of the shops in the High street are damaged in varying degrees.

There was effective rescue work of a number of people in a public shelter in Albemarle road when that bomb fell and there were remarkable escapes by the two mortuary keepers, whose brick shelter withstood the blast at a distance of a few yards.

Deaths and injuries with some very difficult rescue problems occurred when a bomb fell during the same night on houses in Kingshall road near the junction with Aldersmead road.

IN OPEN SPACES

Beckenham's many open spaces undoubtedly served to lessen the potential damage and Foxgrove golf course, Beck lane allotments, the Crystal Palace grounds (many times), Cator Park, Parklangley golf course, fields in South Eden Park, National Provincial Bank sports ground, Hong Kong sports ground, Bethlem Hospital grounds, Kelsey Park, Blake recreation ground and the County School sports ground at South Eden Park, were all the last resting place of flying bombs. Many of these, of course, were not entirely innocuous and property surrounding the open spaces was often severely damaged.

Wickham road, High street and The Grove, West Wickham, were hit and Elmers End road, at the junction with Witham and Marlow roads, was a bad incident. Thesiger road, a much blitzed area, again suffered; Copse avenue, West Wickham was hit and then on one day came two major incidents.

In the morning a building was hit at Elmers End and fire blazed furiously for some time. A possible heavy casualty list was avoided by a few minutes.

In the evening there was a direct hit on a garage when there were 73 casualties, seventeen of them fatal. Work continued all night and until the following afternoon and there were many incidents of great bravery as men drove out blazing vehicles from a building that was finally utterly destroyed.

CHURCH DESTROYED

Elwill way, Parklangley, was hit and then St. Mary's Church, Shortlands, received the first of two bombs which eventually turned it into a total loss. The second bomb fell in the vicarage

(Continued on Page Seven)

NINE TONS OF NAILS

SOME REPAIR FIGURES

To deal with repairs to houses the following huge quantities of material were issued by the Beckenham Highways Department, who frequently worked day and night and at week-ends:

189,000 sq. yards of sisalkraft.
73,000 sq. feet of roofing felt.
1,098,000 tiles.
100,000 slates.
Nine tons of nails.
1,118,000 feet of laths.
100,000 feet of tile battens.
50,000 feet of slate battens.
104,000 sq. feet of window-cloth.

BECKENHAM HOSPITAL

IN-PATIENT ACCOMMODATION

Private Wards	8 beds
Cubicle Wards	12 beds
General Wards	105 beds

(including War emergency beds)

OUT-PATIENT FACILITIES

(a) Consultative Departments

(by appointment only)

Surgical
Medical
Gynæcological
Ear, Nose & Throat
Genito-Urinary
Ophthalmic
Orthopædic
Dental
Children
Skin

(b) Special Departments

(by appointment only)

X-Ray
Massage and Electrical
Ultra Violet Ray
Radiant Heat

(c) Casualty Departments

Open day and night for the reception of accidents and emergencies.

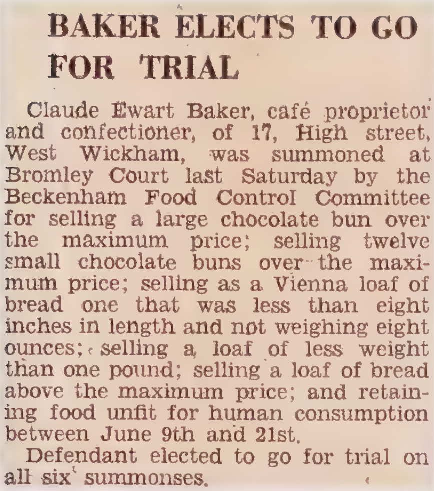
(d) Pathological Laboratory

(including Blood Transfusion Service).

"A Hospital is the parable of the Good Samaritan expressed in our daily life."

Source H

From page 2 of the same issue of the *Beckenham Journal* as Source G.



BAKER ELECTS TO GO FOR TRIAL

Claude Ewart Baker, café proprietor and confectioner, of 17, High street, West Wickham, was summoned at Bromley Court last Saturday by the Beckenham Food Control Committee for selling a large chocolate bun over the maximum price; selling twelve small chocolate buns over the maximum price; selling as a Vienna loaf of bread one that was less than eight inches in length and not weighing eight ounces; selling a loaf of less weight than one pound; selling a loaf of bread above the maximum price; and retaining food unfit for human consumption between June 9th and 21st.

Defendant elected to go for trial on all six summonses.

Activities

Using the range of sources

1 On page 146 you started a table summarising the different types of sources. Continue this for Sources A, C, D and G.

2 Use the table to help you select sources for each of the enquiries below. Here's an example to show you what to do.

For enquiry (a) pages 142–45 provide various official sources and one private source (a Mass Observation diary). Another type of source that would be useful is **local newspapers**.

For Enquiries (b) to (f), first explain the types of sources used in the table you have created, then suggest one that **isn't** used here and explain why that type would be useful.

- **a** How did London prepare for war?
- **b** What was the nature and impact of the First Blitz?
- **c** What was the significance of Mickey's Shelter?
- **d** What was the nature and impact of the V1 and V2 attacks?

Local newspapers

Source G shows you some of the strengths and weaknesses of local newspapers as sources. The photograph shows the centre of Beckenham, which has obviously suffered heavy damage. However, until this issue, the newspaper had ignored the V1 attacks because of censorship. In a national newspaper – where the things described are in places most readers won't walk past every day – this would be less obvious. But in a local newspaper, just about everybody who read it must have known it was ignoring a major story!

A local newspaper shows the effects of the attacks on a single area, and gives us insights into normal life going on alongside the events of the war.

Activities

1 In small groups read one section of Source G each. Divide it up by the sub-heads: so the first group does **FIRST SIGHT**, the next group does **RESCUERS KILLED**, and so on.

- **e** Make notes on what you can find about: the extent of the damage, the number of casualties and the way 'normal life' was still going on.
- **f** Which of the things you discovered would you expect to find in a national newspaper?

2 Now read Source H. How does this add to your understanding of the value of local newspapers?

3 Compare your answers with those of the other groups; then see if you agree about the answers to these two questions.

- **a** How useful a source is this local paper for studying the V1 attacks?
- **b** Are local newspapers a special type of source that tell you things other sources don't?

Using the range of sources

In the examination, you are asked to suggest a possible question about a detail in a source, then identify another type of source that you could use to follow up the question. As an example, this is what you might do if asked this about Source H. The framework of the question helps you through the four-stage process.

- **a** The detail you might follow up is the type of crime Claude Baker is accused of.
- **b** The question you might ask is: 'How common was this type of crime?'
- **c** There are lots of different types of source in this unit. You could suggest any one of these:
  - Private diaries.
  - Official records.
- **d** Last, you have to explain the reason for your choice, for example:
  - Private diaries (because, if it was common, people would probably write about this in their diaries).
  - Official records (because courts will have records including lists of all the cases and the verdicts).

5.5 London's response to the war

Learning outcomes

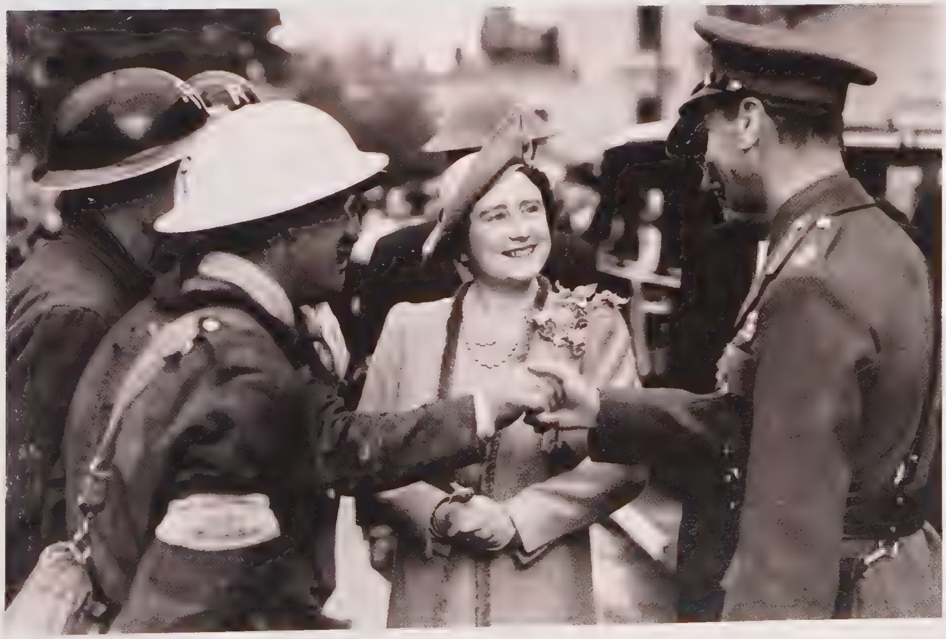
- Understand how London responded to the effects of the war.

Source A

The Cabinet War Rooms were left largely unchanged after the war and opened as a museum in 1984. This is part of the Map Room, with waxwork figures to recreate the appearance of the room during the war.

Source B

A photograph showing King George VI (back to camera) and Queen Elizabeth meeting Civil Defence workers after a raid, November 1940.



Monarchy

The royal family stayed in London throughout the war. The fact that they stayed and were so visible, visiting communities that had been bombed in the Blitz, was important for morale.

Government

The government didn't leave London either. In 1938, when preparations for war were serious, it was decided:

- it would be bad for morale if the government was seen to 'abandon' London, leaving Londoners to face the bombing
- it was probably too late and too complicated anyway; so key buildings were strengthened and special shelters made.

The **Cabinet War Rooms** were the heart of the plan. Work started on this massive (and secret) complex under government offices in June 1938. It was finished on 27 August 1939 – just one week before the war began. It had meeting rooms, offices, a canteen, bedrooms and the **Map Room**. The Map Room was the nerve centre of the government's control of the war; bringing together all the latest status reports from the Army, Navy and Air Force, along with the Chiefs of Staff and the war cabinet.

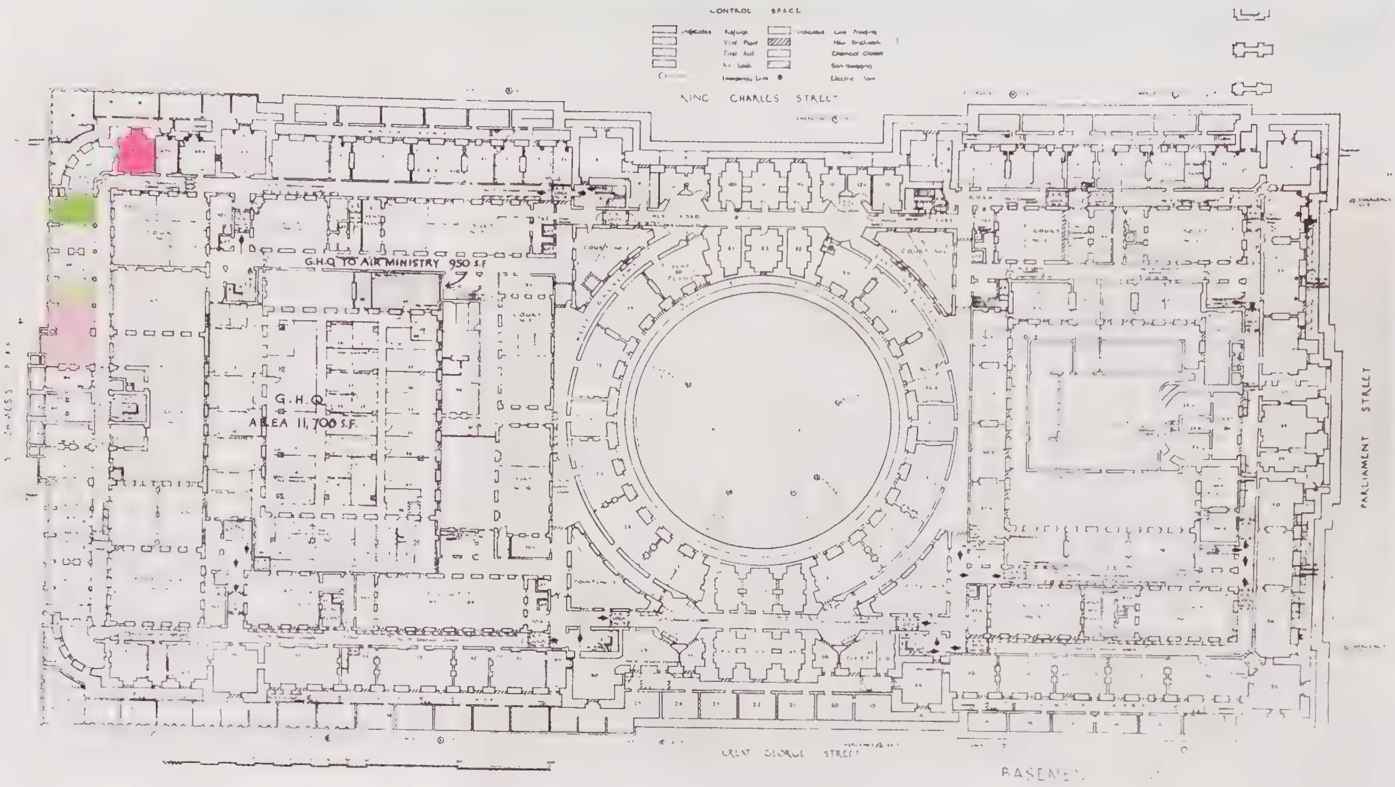
Source C

A quote from the Queen when asked if she and her daughters should evacuate to Canada during the war.

`'The children won't go without me. I won't leave the King. And the King will never leave'.`

Source D

Plan of the Cabinet War Rooms. The Map Room is light pink, the Cabinet Room dark pink, Churchill's bedroom light green and his office dark green.



Continuing leisure activities in London

Because planners had expected very damaging bombing at the start of the war, most leisure activities – including professional football, theatre and cinemas – were closed. Two things changed this policy: there wasn't an instant bombing campaign; and the government realised that these leisure activities were vital for morale.

Dancing

This was very popular and the large dancehalls stayed open throughout the war.

Theatres and concerts

These were allowed to reopen in September 1939, but many didn't. Audiences were nervous and, once the Blitz started, even more so. Performances were usually in the late afternoon; and programmes included instructions about what to do in an air raid. Lunchtime concerts for London workers, subsidised by the government, were very popular.

Professional football

This started again in late September 1939, with regional leagues. Crowds were limited to 8,000, in London (and other main targets) or 16,000 elsewhere. Many professionals had joined the services, and played in exhibition matches around the country.

Safeguarding art and important buildings

Museums and galleries saw their first duty as preserving their collections. So, for example: the National Gallery sent its paintings to a slate quarry in Wales; and the British Museum stored its most precious treasures in an unused Underground tunnel at Aldwych, and sent its books to Aberystwyth.

Buildings were much harder to protect than the art in museums. Some of London's great buildings – like its medieval Guildhall – were destroyed. Parliament was damaged; and many of the fine churches, which had been rebuilt after the Great Fire in 1666, were destroyed again.

Stained glass was taken out of church windows, but what else could be done? The survival of St Paul's Cathedral became a symbol of London's resistance to the Blitz. It wasn't just chance that St Paul's survived – so why did it? Much more damage was caused by incendiaries than by high explosive bombs, so in St Paul's (and a few other buildings) special precautions were taken. There was a special fire-watch group – **the St Paul's Watch** – and squads of watchers patrolled the roof and inside the cathedral, waiting to deal with any incendiaries. Water tanks were installed in the roof, and baths and buckets of water were kept all round the building. The fire watchers used this water to put out incendiaries as they fell.

Cinemas

These were allowed to reopen a week after the start of the war; and audiences increased by over 50% during the war years. The government recognised cinema was a powerful force for propaganda and national unity.

Dig For Victory

This campaign was set up by the government to encourage people to grow more of their own food and rely less upon food being shipped to Britain. People were encouraged to dig up their gardens; and public parks (like Victoria Park in east London) and even the moat of the Tower of London, were turned into vegetable patches! The use of places like Victoria Park and the Tower showed just how important the drive to grow more food was.

Source E

A photograph showing the moat of the Tower of London, turned into allotment gardens to grow food.

Summary

- Both the royal family and the government stayed in London throughout the war.
- The Cabinet War Rooms provided a secure base for government.
- The government did what it could to maintain morale by making life as normal as possible.
- Drives such as 'Dig For Victory' helped to counter the suffering of the war and also helped to bring everyone together.

Checkpoint

Strengthen

S1 Make a table with two columns: 'Normal' and 'Not Normal'. Study the text in this section and Sources A–E, and use the information to fill in the table, showing what had changed, because of the war, and what hadn't.

S2 Explain why it was policy to shut down cinemas, theatres and football in September 1939.

S3 Explain why the government changed this policy.

S4 Which source is more useful in helping you understand what the Cabinet War Rooms were like, Source B or D?

Challenge

C1 Explain whether each of the following statements is **true**, **false** or **partly true**, supporting your answer with evidence from the text and the sources.

- **a** Normal life stopped completely for Londoners during the war.
- **b** The Cabinet War Rooms were a shelter to keep Churchill and the cabinet safe.

If you are not confident about any of these questions, form a group with other students, discuss the answers and then record your conclusions. Your teacher can give you some hints.

Recap: London and the Second World War

There are three questions in this section of the exam paper. This recap section is structured around the demands of the three questions.

- The **Two features quiz** is designed to help you prepare for the first question, which is a factual recall question about an aspect of this section of the course. However, this isn't the only time you'll need factual recall in the examination, so making sure you have a clear factual framework for London in the Second World War is important. When you are answering questions about the sources, you need to use your knowledge of the period, so that you can interpret the sources in the context of what was happening at that time.
- **This source is useful for** helps you prepare for the second question in the exam, which gives you two sources and asks you how useful they would be for a particular enquiry.
- **What is the question?** helps you prepare for the second and third questions – in both of these questions, thinking about the enquiry is vital.
- **All about the details** helps you think about source types and how they can be used for new enquiries.

Two features quiz

For each topic below, list as many facts or features as you can. Aim to have at least two features for every topic.

1. Government preparations before war was declared
2. Anderson shelters
3. Gas masks
4. Why London was a target
5. Why the East End was a target within London
6. Black Saturday
7. Types of bomb used against London
8. German use of incendiary bombs
9. The scale of the attacks on London in the First Blitz
10. The range of shelters and shelter policy
11. 'Mickey's shelter'
12. South Hallsville School
13. Government actions to keep up civilian morale
14. The Lull
15. Bethnal Green Tube disaster
16. The Baby Blitz
17. V1 attacks
18. V2 attacks
19. Deptford – New Cross Woolworths attack
20. Role of the King and Queen
21. Government use of propaganda
22. Leisure activities

This source is useful for

Sources	Enquiry	The historical context	One way in which each source is and isn't useful
B & C (142–3)	How well organised was the evacuation?	*London expected to be bombed heavily in the first few days of the war, so it was vital to get children out quickly.* *Children evacuated by school.*	*Source B is useful because it shows how the voluntary groups were involved, but it doesn't tell you anything about why there were fewer than expected.* *Source C shows you they went from school, but doesn't explain why they were still there days after they should have gone.*
E (145) & N (152)	What were conditions like in large shelters?		
J & L (151)	How many people were killed in the South Hallsville disaster?		
A & C (169)	How important was the royal family in keeping morale high during the Blitz?		
E & F (158)	Why were so many people killed in the Balham Tube disaster?		

What is the question?		
Source	**Enquiry it would be useful for (and why)**	**Enquiry it wouldn't be useful for (and why)**
A (142)	*How the evacuation worked in practice – the way they had to change the train timetables to free up the trains to take the evacuees*	*Why many children were still left in London after the date they were all supposed to have been evacuated.*
C (139)		
A (147)		
D (148)		
G (150)		
M (152)		
B (155)		
G (159)		

All about the details				
Source	**Detail**	**Question I would ask**	**Type of source I would use**	**How this might help answer my question**
D (148)	*The utility services would be quickly repaired.*	*How quickly did people get their gas, water and electricity back?*	*Mass Observation diaries*	*Diaries from people in the places bombed would probably say if they had no water or could not cook at home. This would be the real story, not what politicians wanted to happen.*
C (139)				
A (147)				
G (150)				
M (152)				
B (155)				
G (159)				

Preparing for your GCSE Paper 1 exam

Paper 1 overview

Your Paper 1 is in two sections that examine the Historic Environment and the Thematic Study. Together they count for 30% of your History assessment. The questions on the Historic Environment: 'London and the Second World War, 1939–45', are in Section A and are worth 10% of your History assessment. Allow about a third of the examination time for Section A, making sure you leave enough time for Section B.

History Paper 1	**Historic Environment and Thematic Depth Study**			**Time 1 hour 15 mins**
Section A	Historic Environment	Answer 3 questions	16 marks	25 mins
Section B	Thematic Study	Answer 3 questions	32 marks + 4 SPaG marks	50 mins

Historic Environment: London and the Second World War, 1939–45

You will answer Question 1 and Question 2, which is in two parts:

1 Describe two features of... (4 marks)

You are given a few lines to write about each feature. Allow five minutes to write your answer. It is only worth four marks, so keep the answer brief and try not to add more information on extra lines.

2(a) How useful are Sources A and B... (8 marks)

You are given two sources to evaluate. They are in a separate sources booklet, so you can keep them in front of you while you write your answer. Allow 15 minutes for this question, to give yourself time to study both sources carefully. Make sure your answer refers to both sources. It should **analyse** the sources:

- What useful information do they give? Only choose points that are directly relevant to the enquiry in the question.
- What can you infer? Work out what evidence they can provide that is not actually **stated** in the source.

You must also **evaluate** the source.

- Use contextual knowledge – for example, to evaluate accuracy or completeness.
- Use the provenance (nature, origin, purpose) of the source to evaluate the strength of the evidence.
- Make **judgements** about the usefulness of each source, giving clear reasons. These should be based on the importance of the content of the sources, and should also take account of the provenance.

Analyse		Evaluate
Information points	+	Using knowledge
Inferences		Using provenance

2(b) How could you follow up Source B to find out more about... (4 marks)

You are given a table to complete when you answer this question. It has four parts to it:

- The detail you would follow up.
- The question you would ask.
- The type of source you could use to find the information.
- Your explanation of how this information would help answer the question.

Allow five minutes to write your answer. You should keep your answer brief and not try to fill extra lines. The question is only worth four marks. Plan your answer so that all the parts link. Your answer will not be strong if you choose a detail to follow up, but then cannot think of a question or type of source that would help you follow it up.

Paper 1, Question 1

Describe **two** features of the V1 attacks on London in 1944–45. **(4 marks)**

Exam tip

Keep your answer brief. Two points with some extra information about each of them.

Average answer

6th

Feature 1:

The pilotless V1s came over all day and night.

Feature 2:

Most casualties were caused by flying glass.

Identifies two features, but with no supporting information.

Verdict

This is an average answer because two valid features are given, but with no supporting information. Use the feedback to rewrite this answer, making as many improvements as you can.

Strong answer

10th

Feature 1:

Since the First Blitz, London had only had night bombing, but V1s, because they were pilotless, could be launched at any time of the day or night. This meant they were much more disruptive because they could hit at any time of the day, and people couldn't spend all day in the shelters.

Feature 2:

They caused a big explosion that broke windows all around the site where the V1 hit, and razor sharp flying glass from all the broken windows went everywhere. It was this glass that killed most people, not the explosion, they were out and were hit by it.

The answer has identified two features. Supporting information is directly related (the death and disruption caused, and the explanation of how most people were hurt by flying glass).

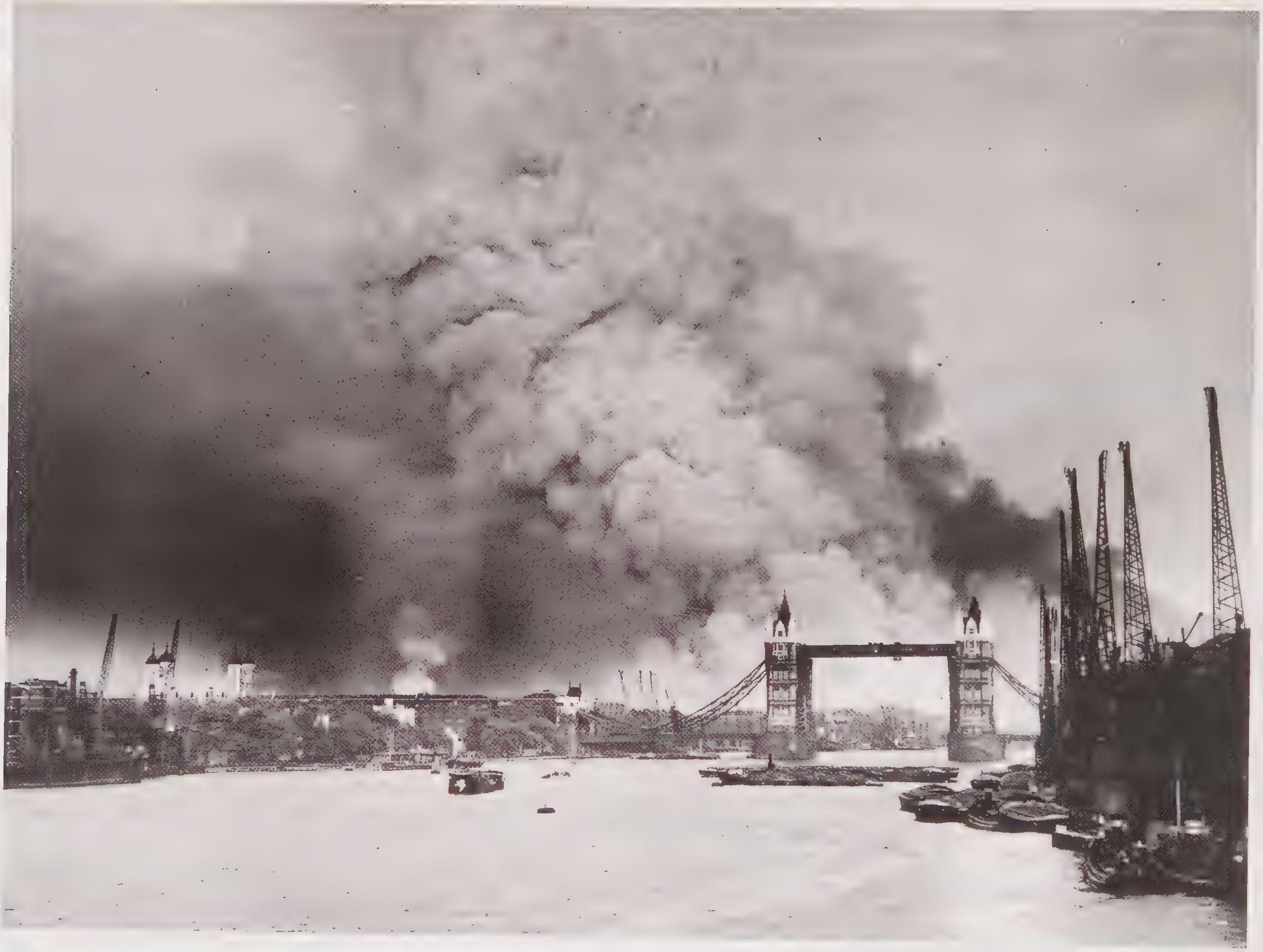
Verdict

This is a strong answer because two valid features are given with supporting information.

Sources for use with Section A

Source A

A photograph taken towards the end of the afternoon raid on Black Saturday (7 September 1940), from London Bridge, looking east to Tower Bridge and the East End. This photograph was not published until after the war.



Source B

From an account of Black Saturday by Alan Hutt, a journalist working in Fleet Street in central London, near London Bridge, on a communist newspaper. It was written in his private diary.

Both sides of the river were plastered [with bombs] as far as Woolwich and the fire stretched for miles – eight or nine I should say. As dusk fell about 9 o'clock, the sight from our roof was incredible, a gold and grey smoke-canopied flaming glow stretching thickly as far as one could see. Blackout was dead for the rest of the night and the bombers came back by the light of the fire to blast the East End. David has got a magnificent shot of the fire from London Bridge but the censor refuses to pass any pictures – 'nothing that will confirm the enemy's claims'.

Paper 1, Question 2a

Study Sources A and B in the Sources Booklet (see page 176).

How useful are Sources A and B for an enquiry into the extent of the damage caused by the German bombing raids on Black Saturday?

Explain your answer, using Sources A and B and your own knowledge of the historical context. **(8 marks)**

Exam tip

Consider the strengths and weaknesses of the evidence. Your evaluation must link to the enquiry and use contextual knowledge. Your reasons (criteria) for judgement should be clear. Include points about:

- What information is relevant and what can you infer from the source?
- How does the provenance (nature, origin, purpose) of each source affect its usefulness?

Average answer

Source B is useful because Alan Hutt tells us how enormous the damage was because the fire might have stretched for eight or nine miles, both sides of the river, and they burned so bright that they guided the German bomber pilots for the rest of the night.

It is also useful because Alan Hutt was a journalist during the war working on a communist newspaper, and he was in the centre of London that night. It was written in his private diary so probably right after it happened. But it is also not useful because he was a communist and probably looking to make things seem as bad for the government as he could. Also he was on London Bridge, not in the East End.

Source A is useful because it is an actual photograph of the fires during the raid and it is from the time. It is reliable as it shows the fires in the East End and we know that was the target for the bombing. From the photograph we can see there are fires both sides of the river. The photo shows a lot of fires, but it only shows what was happening at an early point in the raid.

8th

Some useful information is taken from the source and the answer begins an inference ('how enormous'), but this needs to be more developed and supported.

Comments are made about the author of the source, but they assume that his politics mean he must be unreliable. Additional knowledge is used to imply that the information isn't ideal because he wasn't in the East End. This should be made clearer.

Comments show that information can be got from the photograph. Knowledge is added to show that the photograph is reliable. It would be stronger with more developed evaluation, for example explaining why this is an early point in the raid.

Verdict

This is an average answer because:

- it has taken relevant information from both sources and shown some analysis by beginning to make an inference (so it is not a weak answer)
- it has added in relevant contextual knowledge and used it for some evaluation of both the sources, but this is not sufficiently developed
- it does not explain criteria for judgement clearly enough to be a strong answer. The evaluation using the provenance of the sources should be more developed.

Use the feedback to rewrite this answer, making as many improvements as you can.

Paper 1, Question 2a

Study Sources A and B in the Sources Booklet (see page 176).

How useful are Sources A and B for an enquiry into the extent of the damage caused by the German bombing raids on Black Saturday?

Explain your answer, using Sources A and B and your own knowledge of the historical context. (**8 marks**)

Exam tip

Consider the strengths and weaknesses of the evidence. Your evaluation must link to the enquiry and use contextual knowledge. Your reasons (criteria) for judgement should be clear. Include points about:

- What information is relevant and what can you infer from the source?
- How does the provenance (nature, origin, purpose) of each source affect its usefulness?

Strong answer

Source B is from Alan Hutt's private diary, so he probably wrote it that day or the next day. This means the memories will be very fresh in his mind, and not affected by all the things that happened later in the Blitz. Because it is his private diary he probably just wrote it for himself, he didn't have to worry about censorship. This is useful because it means it is probably accurate. We know that the docks were on both sides of the river east of London Bridge, and Hutt sees that there were fires on both sides of the river, so this is accurate too.

Good analysis of the evidence and integration of own knowledge.

He explains how bright the light of the fires was, and that this meant the blackout was a waste of time. This is the same as other accounts of Black Saturday, so his account is useful evidence of the extent of the damage, but it isn't a complete picture. He wasn't in the East End, he was in Fleet Street and his friend was on London Bridge. The East End is further down the river, and he wasn't there, so he doesn't tell us anything about the real damage in the area.

Good evaluation using own knowledge and looking at what the source can't tell us. It could make more of the provenance of the source.

Source A is useful because it shows where the fires were when it was taken, and the massive amount of smoke in the air gives us an idea of how big they must have been. This was probably taken quite early in the raid, because we know the raid started in the afternoon, there was a pause in the early evening, then the bombers came back for most of the night. This photo was taken in daylight, so it must have been before the bombers came back. It would show much more damage if taken later.

Strengths and limitations of the source are shown, and contextual knowledge is used in the evaluation, which also comments on the nature of the source.

Verdict

This is a strong answer because:

- it has analysed both sources, making inferences from them
- it has used contextual knowledge in the evaluation of both sources
- the evaluation takes provenance into account and explains criteria clearly when making judgements.

Paper 1, Question 2b

Study Source B (see page 176).

How could you follow up Source B to find out more about the extent of the censorship of the news about the German bombing raids on Black Saturday?

In your answer, you must give the question you would ask and the type of source you could use.

Complete the table below. **(4 marks)**

Exam tip

Make sure your detail to follow up, your question, and your suggested type of source all link; and that you explain how the source could help you answer the question.

Average answer

Detail in Source B that I would follow up:

The censor refuses to pass any pictures – 'nothing that will confirm the enemy's claims'.

Question I would ask:

Were there really no pictures published of Black Saturday?

What type of source I could use:

Photographs taken by people at the time.

How this might help answer my question:

I could see if there were any other photos.

7th

The answer has given a question linked to censorship, but has not suggested a source that will help answer the question, because what matters is what was published, not what was taken.

The explanation is linked back to the question for follow-up, but not directly to the details chosen from Source B.

Verdict

This is an average answer because connections between the source details and the question are not securely linked.

Use the feedback to rewrite this answer, making as many improvements as you can.

Paper 1, Question 2b

Study Source B (see page 176).

How could you follow up Source B to find out more about the extent of censorship of the news about the German bombing raids on Black Saturday?

In your answer, you must give the question you would ask and the type of source you could use.

Complete the table below. **(4 marks)**

Exam tip

Make sure your detail to follow up, your question, and your suggested type of source all link; and that you explain how the source could help answer the question.

Strong answer

Detail in Source B that I would follow up:

The censor refuses to pass any pictures – 'nothing that will confirm the enemy's claims'.

Question I would ask:

Were there really no pictures showing damage published of Black Saturday?

What type of source I could use:

National and local newspapers and Pathe newsreels published and shown in the days after Black Saturday, showing the area that was attacked.

How this might help answer my question:

To see if they concentrated on important buildings that were not destroyed, or if any actually showed pictures of the damage afterwards – as this would show it was not true, because the censor would have to pass them for them to be in newspapers or a newsreel.

The answer has given a question linked directly to the extent of censorship.

The explanation is linked back to the question for follow-up and the type of source chosen.

Verdict

This is a strong answer because connections between the source details, the question and source are securely linked.

Answers to HE Recap

Two features quiz

Here are some examples. You should be able to find more. [Page numbers in square brackets]

1 Issuing gas masks; air raid shelter policy; giving out Anderson Shelters [140–46]

2 Only useful for families with gardens; supplied in parts and fitted together by the families [144–45]

3 Issued in September 1938; people didn't always carry them when they should [143]

4 Centre of government; transport hub [140]

5 Docks; main roads; railway lines [147–49]

6 First major raid, 7 September 1940; over 400 people killed, 1,600 seriously injured [148–50]

7 High explosive; incendiaries; mines [153]

8 Started fires to guide later bombers; the fires did more damage than high explosives [153]

9 250,000 people lost their homes in the first six weeks; 54,000 people killed and injured [150–55]

10 Dispersal (small surface shelters); soon changed to more deep shelters [144, 148–53]

11 An example of self-help; provided health care and a canteen [153]

12 Temporary centre for homeless; example of things not working properly [151]

13 Censorship of bad news; use of propaganda [154–56]

14 11 May 1941–20 January 1944; fewer raids, usually the night after a raid on Germany [160–61]

15 Worst crush disaster of the war; 173 killed [161]

16 21 January–19 April 1944; period of heavy raids; 3,793 people killed and injured [160]

17 Pilotless planes; day-time bombing [162–63]

18 Rockets not planes; caused heavy casualties [164–65]

19 Hit a large shop on a busy Saturday lunchtime; 160 people killed and 200 injured [165]

20 Stayed in London; good for civilian morale [169]

21 Used to keep up morale and to help the war effort, e.g. posters and newsreels [156–57]

22 Most closed in September 1939; opened again soon after to keep up morale [170–71]

This source is useful for

Government policy was dispersal – keeping people in small groups and above ground, so less thought and planning had gone into large shelters. Source E doesn't give you any detail about the conditions in the shelters, but it is useful because you can work out the average numbers – so 380 per trench shelter. Source N is useful for 1941, but the bad conditions were in 1940 and this shows the shelter after it was improved.

First days when some things not well organised. J: useful – what people were told at the time; not useful – exactly how many killed. L: useful – extent of the damage, people in collapsed section unlikely to live; not useful – numbers.

Government concerned to keep up civilian morale in London. A: useful as an example of how the royal family staying in London was turned into propaganda; not useful: probably not the real reason why they stayed. C: useful for how their presence was used; not useful for conditions after a raid.

The underground was not always safe. E: useful – shows how much debris there was once the water drained away; not useful – where the water and debris came from. F: useful – the effect the sludge had; not useful – where the sludge came from.

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Key terms are capitalised initially, in bold type with an asterisk.
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